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CONTENTS

Field and Method of the Elementary College Course in History	-	III
Contributions by A. B. Show, W. A. Frayer, J. F. Baldwin, J. E. Wrench, M. R. Gutsch, E. A. Balch, R. H. George, C. H. Walker, H. R. Shipman, C. P. Gould, W. C. Harris, D. L. McMurry, C. J. H. Hayes, J. G. McDonald, A. H. Lybyer, and L. H. Gipson.		
What to Attempt in Collateral Reading, by W. W. Wuesthoff	-	129
Periodical Literature, edited by Dr. G. B. Richards	-	131
History in Wisconsin High Schools, by Prof. W. J. Chase	-	132
Reports from the Historical Field	-	134
Book Reviews, edited by Prof. W. J. Chase	-	135
List of History Teachers' Associations	-	137
Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb	-	138

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Field and Method of the Elementary College Course

Official Report of the Conference Held at the American Historical Association Meeting
at Cincinnati, December 27, 1916

ACCOMPLISHED RESULTS AND FUTURE PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF FRESHMAN HISTORY.

BY ABLEY BARTHLOW SHOW, LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR
UNIVERSITY, CHAIRMAN OF THE CONFERENCE.

When I was asked to preside over this conference, I said that I would be glad to "call time and keep the peace;" but I was informed that something more than that was expected of the chairman, and so I am going to take just a few moments to call attention to certain phases of the matter before us.

These conferences have usually taken the form of experience meetings, and it is well that such should be the case; but having no unique experience to relate of my own, I have chosen to-day to talk on more general lines, namely, to indicate some of the results in a broad way which have already been gained by conferences and by experiences, and to point out very briefly a few directions in which I think it is desirable and reasonable to look for progress in the future.

The subject that we have before us to-day is not a new one; for at least three conferences upon this specific matter have been held in previous annual meetings of the Association. In the New York meeting of 1896 a general session was given up to the discussion of college teaching, not however particularly devoted to the first year's work. The first conference of that type was held in 1901 at Washington, and the matter was debated pro and con. In the brief reports of that conference that have been preserved for us certain very distinct tendencies are manifest. At that time it seems to have been true that the course in general European history was quite prevalent; but even fifteen years ago many of the devices which are now in standard use in colleges were already in use, such as the lecture, the quiz, reference reading, and various other aids and appliances.

In 1905, at the Baltimore and Washington meeting, another conference was held on the first year of college work. Here again there was a wide range of discussion. At the close of the discussion, the chairman, Professor Haskins, pointed out certain directions in which the discussion had gone. He said it was manifest, for one thing, that the emphasis was placed upon method rather than upon the substance or the field of the course. He said also that in his

judgment it was highly desirable to limit the field and not to make it too extensive.

Then in 1906, at the last of these conferences held until the present time at the Indianapolis meeting, Professor Farrand in the chair, the discussion again covered a wide range, but narrowed down somewhat to a discussion of the relative importance of what is called a sequence of courses and a sequence of methods; and the upshot of the matter, as summarized by the chairman, was that there is no fixed order in the sequence of courses; that in order to give it in an intelligent way there ought to be a chronological sequence in the college course; but that after all method is more important than fact; and that great allowance must be made for the varying conditions of different institutions and localities. That was the last pronouncement of the Association in any formal way till the present time. That was ten years ago.

However, we can say that these discussions have left an increment of permanent worth that has confirmed our suspicions about many things, and have sometimes enabled us to find vindication for certain methods and given us some degree of satisfaction of mind where otherwise we would have been disturbed.

Of course, during the decade that has elapsed since then we have learned much from our experience, and much that we have learned ought to come out in the discussion to-day. Nevertheless I think it may be said that all these conferences which we have had have not as yet crystallized into anything positive and concrete which we can put our hands upon and hold as established doctrine—certain results that we have reached and that we are not going to recede from—but as yet we cannot say that the first year of work in college has been standardized in any full degree. There is still room for experiment and for discussion.

Now I wish to say here, once and for all, that I recognize fully the limits of standardizing work of our type. Because we as individual teachers are jealous of our rights and of our liberties, we want to use our own resources and personalities as fully as we may in the direction of instruction. We shall not readily follow; we shall not readily call any man master, or any organization master. Still we want to leave the way open always for the fullness of light to break in from whatever source it may come. Consequently, in any-

thing that I might say about the need of standardizing our methods and ideals, and the possibility of so doing, I am speaking always with that reservation. So much, then, for the state of the case up to the present time.

Now just a very few words with regard to the outlook upon the future. The subject that we have before us to-day is dual in its character, dealing with the *field* of elementary instruction on the one hand, and the *method* on the other. These two aspects of the matter hardly cover the whole subject. There are various phases which would need to be embraced in a thoroughly comprehensive view of the matter, and which we cannot take our time here to-day to consider, although we need to define somewhat more clearly than we are doing the varying ideals, aims or purposes of our college instruction.

The students who come into our elementary classes represent almost every possible phase of preparation, almost every possible phase of outlook upon the future. We have not as yet perhaps clearly defined our own purposes and aims in relation to these students, as to just what we are seeking to accomplish for them.

In the secondary school, for example, we have pretty clearly settled the fact that the chief purpose of historical instruction is in its trend toward good citizenship. Can we define in any such clear way the purposes of college instruction? We can say that it is partly for good citizenship, it is partly for the development of general cultural aims, it is partly for the training of teachers of history, it is partly for the training of specialists; but the relative proportions of these and the adjustment of the relation of one to the other is a matter that has not yet been thoroughly worked out.

More important still is the question of a proper correlation of college work with the preceding work of students. Our articulation with the secondary schools, the land over, is very imperfect and very unsatisfactory. For example, we are not agreed at all as to how much weight should be given in our freshman course to the previous historical studies of the student. To a questionnaire which I sent out to thirty leading institutions, something over a year ago, I got all sorts of answers. The general tendency was to ignore the previous work of the students and introduce them to the elements. Now that answer may be a necessary one—I am inclined to think it is—in view of the present conditions in the secondary schools and in colleges; but I am quite certain that that cannot be the final answer to the matter. We must have a better solution than that. We must have a way to give due weight and significance to the work which has been done before we took the student in hand. We must adjust our elementary course to their needs to a greater or less degree.

Coming now to the matter directly before us to-day, the question of the *field* of college history and of the *method* of college history, here again the complete lack of uniformity is most striking. We are giving as an elementary course to our first-year students in this

country almost every subject in the historical curriculum, and every man is fully persuaded in his own eyes that the thing which he is doing is the best thing to do. We are at this point a long way from standardization; and with regard to this again it must be said that possibly we never can reach anything like uniformity; possibly it will have to be a kind of go-as-you-please. And still the man whose mind is built as much on lines of systematic tendencies as my own must hope that that time will come when we can more nearly see eye to eye.

In the abstract it seems indisputably true that some field of history is better adapted to the training of freshmen than any other, if we can find it; and so here I think we need to take counsel together and need to compare notes that we may learn from the experience of one another.

The ideal course for first-year students, for beginners in history in college, must of course fulfil certain requirements. It must have the best teaching materials and make available those teaching materials. It must appeal to the interest of students, and to do this must come within the reach of their understanding, and must lay foundations for their future work in history in an adequate way. This must be attained through a coherent course.

It is not my purpose to-day to attempt to point out the ideal field, but simply to say that until we have come more nearly together in our thinking and in our practice, this matter will remain an open question, in my judgment; and consequently I feel myself that this is perhaps the more important of the two questions before us to-day. The other (as to method) has received far more debate, and in its solution we have arrived far more nearly at a common opinion; but on this point relating to the field of instruction we are still, as I see it, very much at sea.

Just a word or two with regard to this matter of methods of instruction. The situation in this respect is very good, as I see it to-day. As I said at the beginning, we have come to an agreement about many of the large essentials. We no longer depend upon the text-book as the main-stay. The lecture system, with the quiz section, the conference, and all those devices, is in general use. We depend upon reference reading and written work of one type or another, and so on, for results. All this is established doctrine which is not likely to be overthrown by any experiences of the future. For many of these we shall not in my judgment find any substitutes that will be equally adequate. Here again we have, however, certain guiding principles which must be kept in view. Of these to my mind the first and perhaps the most important is that the personality of the teacher must never be forgotten. One man cannot lecture; another cannot do anything else. Each man must be allowed to work in his own way, and we cannot impose upon him a yoke of doctrine or dogma which shall in any way interfere with the freedom of his action in these things.

The ideal method must be a graded method. There must be progress from the first year to the last in the

methods employed; and I believe in this respect we are still very much at fault. We teach freshmen often by methods that are adapted to seniors, and seniors by methods that are adapted to freshmen; and we have not as yet worked out that sequence of methods by which we should get the best results along the entire line. At any rate, that is my judgment about it, and also my experience.

Then again in this matter we must have a proper balance of method and material, or method and fact. This is an old, old controversy, as old as the beginning of our teaching of history, as to whether we shall give historical information, or whether we shall train for what we call "power" or historical insight, or something of that kind. In my judgment, we have to seek both, and in due relation to one another. It is not knowledge or power, or even knowledge and power, but it is power through knowledge; and the proper method must take account of both. I am sure that none of us here believes in that kind of method which leaves in the mind of the student a knowledge of processes without any product, without any substratum of facts, or historical knowledge, or information, that has been gathered and stored away for permanent possession. So there are possibilities of improvement and growth in the field of method also.

I want to speak of one thing that is rather a hobby of mine, although I must say that it is a hobby I have never tried to put into effect. I believe we shall come in the course of years—perhaps before many years—to a larger degree of supervision over the study work—I do not mean class-room work—but over the study work of our history students in college. We shall come to something which, for want of a better term, one may call an historical laboratory. We owe that term practically to Professor MacDonald, of Brown University. What I mean is this, that the student shall work under the eye of the instructor, under some kind of guidance; that the student shall come into a laboratory or work-shop where he will be provided with his desk, and have all of his material around him, with a specific task to be worked out under the guidance of the instructor. Out in California, of course, we pride ourselves on our schools, and I do not know whether you back here in the middle portion of the country have caught up with us in this matter yet, or not. But out in California we are getting into our secondary schools what is known as supervised study. That is to say, instead of sending the child to a study-room or study-hall to prepare a lesson, the lesson is prepared under the eye of the teacher, and then recited; and the results that we have obtained by this method, so far as it has been employed up to date, are highly satisfactory. We shall come to adopt a similar plan, I think, in college work. I believe myself that when put upon a practical footing we shall be able to get fifty per cent. better results out of our elementary course than we are getting at the present time. Students do not know how to do the tasks that are assigned them. They need a far larger degree of guidance than we are giving them; and I believe that we can improve upon this situation

by making conditions right through supervision of their personal study.

Now let me refer to just one further point. Last year the Pacific Coast Branch of the Association adopted a resolution urging upon the parent Association the expediency of appointing a committee to bring in a report on the teaching of college history similar to the Report of the Committee of Seven on the field of secondary school work. This resolution was transmitted to the Executive Council, and I think they reported that while they did not see their way clear, because of financial reasons, to appoint such a committee at the present time, that they would be glad to have any light which this conference might throw upon that question. Consequently you will understand that we shall be glad to hear from any one here to-day who chooses to speak with regard to the wisdom of appointing a committee to gather up the results of our experience in formal shape. That question will be legitimate in the discussions of the hour.

I. The Field

THE FIELD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE.

BY WILLIAM A. FRAYER, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

Whatever views we may hold as to the relative importance of scope and method, I think that most of us would prefer to speak about methods of study rather than about the field of study, because we have probably thought more about that phase of the subject.

I am afraid that I shall not be able to present anything that is new; and I am afraid that I shall not be able to make any very categorical answers to the questions that are proposed this afternoon; furthermore, I do not think it is at present possible to make any absolutely categorical answers.

Let me say with reference to what our chairman has already remarked. I believe the question of purpose should be taken up in connection with the question of field and of method. If it is true that secondary schools are teaching citizenship successfully through history, then we do not need to pay much attention to that; but I for one do not believe that the secondary schools are successfully doing this, and so I believe that we teachers of elementary history in our colleges and universities, especially the universities where there are large bodies of students, have before us at the present time an opportunity for public service which transcends almost any other opportunity in the teaching profession. But this is purely a secondary function, and it should not be forgotten that our primary function is always to teach history; and I for one would like to see some of the best men in our field drafted into that work. I believe that all of us who are younger and are made to serve our apprenticeship in this work, are learning very valuable lessons, but at the same time are creating possibly some havoc while we are learning these lessons. and I should like to see the novices tried out on something less important than the introductory courses in

history in our great institutions. Furthermore, I should like to see men prepared especially for this peculiarly difficult form of teaching in which there is often too much guess-work.

As Professor Show has pointed out, this question is in its infancy, because the whole matter of history teaching is still experimental. I wish to emphasize also the point that we are dealing with a course for immature students.

Now if we agree with Professor Gwatkin that there are three fairly definite steps in historical teaching, the first of which is to arouse interest, the second, to impart sound historical information, and the third, to teach sound methods of historical research and criticism, we must also agree that so far as introductory courses are concerned they must deal largely with the first two steps, with only a glimpse possibly of the third step; and throughout those three steps there must all the time run, in my opinion at least, the idea that the final, even though indirect, object of it all is not only to impart information or to make citizens, although these are of great importance, but also to develop certain human qualities, call them sympathy, call them imagination, call them tolerance, or what you will; but the development of these qualities is the ultimate goal which we cannot possibly evade. Once again, there are three steps in history teaching: (1) to stimulate interest; (2) to impart sound information; (3) to teach sound methods of historical research and criticism insofar as we can. The first two apply especially to the freshman; he cannot do much with the third, and therefore during the freshman year we must confine ourselves largely to the first two.

Under ideal conditions we would not have to pay much attention to the first; but our conditions are not ideal. The ideal students would be on fire with interest; but as these conditions do not prevail, we must first arouse their interest, and the method by which that interest has to be aroused is a matter of detail that I do not need to deal with here.

As to my own personal standpoint on that in connection with our experience at the University of Michigan, I should like to exonerate to a large extent the secondary school-teachers. There is too much recrimination between those who send and those who receive the freshmen. I believe that the entire fault is not with the teachers that send them to us, but is partly the result of general educational tendencies. Possibly the secondary school-teachers have carried a little too far the idea that the child is right in his likes and dislikes, but there are other reasons. Those of us who deal with freshmen are well aware of the general tendency in the direction of the modern field. I think that that tendency, along with much that is good, involves some very grave dangers. The demand for recent history, exclusively, it seems to me, is not at all a wholesome tendency from the standpoint of pedagogy. I will not say anything more about that; but let me say this, that our experience at the University of Michigan leads us to believe that many students who are clamoring for contemporary history, so called, are the very students who do not read the

newspapers; in other words, are interested neither in the present nor in the past.

As to specific answers to these three questions: First, "Should the same field be offered as a first course for all students?" I should say "Yes," with two provisos; and this would be my own personal answer to the question; of course there are many possible answers. I should say the same field should be possible and should be offered to the first year students, first, if numbers will permit it, and, second, if you have just the right man. At the University of Michigan, we have about 750 students taking freshman history, and we do not believe 750 students should be brought into a single course. We offer them three courses, therefore, and believe that several courses may well be given, provided that the right men are available to give them effectively. Otherwise, I should say "No," most emphatically. It is not always possible to have just the right man for the place, a man who is both able and willing—because there are a good many men who are able but not willing to make the sacrifices that would be required in taking the time from their own research and from their own more satisfactory teaching experience, possibly connected with advance students. So that my answer will be "Yes, if numbers will permit, and you have the right man."

As to the second question, "If only one, what field should be chosen?" at present although we wish, Mr. Chairman, that we were in position to give a positive answer, I believe it is impossible to say. That course is best in any institution which enables that institution to work most effectively. At the present time it makes no great difference, in my opinion, whether that course be in ancient history, or whether it be in the modern field, so long as it is effectively given through the best available means. I think that on the whole probably the best case can be made out for the field of medieval and modern history, not modern alone, not medieval alone, but both. I hope that point can be discussed and be shown to be either right or wrong.

"If more than one, what alternatives should be allowed?" Here again it is impossible under present conditions to give a categorical answer; but if more than one is given I should say that this might be chosen probably from among several alternatives; first, medieval and modern; second, medieval; third, modern; in the fourth place, the general field; but I would not care to insist upon this order. The English, ancient, and other special fields, I should like to defer to a later year in the curriculum when the methods to be employed are more advanced and better suited to more mature students.

THE ELEMENTARY COURSE AT VASSAR COLLEGE.

BY JAMES F. BALDWIN, VASSAR COLLEGE.

Following the rule that the chairman has wisely laid down, I shall speak entirely from experience in my own college. Ten years ago I thought it was a dogma based on tradition that the beginning course in history should be European, general, medieval, or

medieval and modern, however it might be defined. I have since learned that nothing can be held by tradition, and that criticisms and questions are being raised as to the merits of such a course. Have we been giving too much attention to the Roman Empire? Do we need a survey of the Middle Ages? Are we modern enough? Would it be better to begin with English or American history? are some of the questions in point.

Now there are certain reasons, strong enough, we think, that lead us to maintain the traditional course, if it be such, in Vassar College. One is, that since it is a compulsory course, required of all students either in their freshman or sophomore year, which is taken as a matter of fact by freshmen more than by sophomores, the course has a special relationship to the college curriculum as a whole. For it is to be considered as introductory not merely to the study of history, but to college work in general. For this purpose it seems to us that European history, as compared with English or American, has a marked advantage in that it is related to the greatest number of subjects taught in the college. French, German, English, Latin, Philosophy and Art are all given something of a background or starting-point in general history. If we were to split up the general course into a variety of alternative courses in history, as is sometimes proposed, I have little doubt that the faculty would soon question the propriety of maintaining history as a required subject. The department would then not only lose a proportion of students in history, it would fail also in making this contribution, that we deem of great value, to the general college work. Conditions may be different, I grant, in a large university like Michigan, where great diversities in the student body are to be met, but I am speaking of a college where the classes are fairly homogeneous.

Furthermore, it seems to me that the beginning course, whatever its content may be, should be that which best inculcates certain fundamental ideas, in this case historical concepts. In the fall of the Roman Empire, for example, there is the lesson that out of destruction there comes construction and readjustment, while evolution and devolution go on simultaneously. No study bears out this thought so well as the course which connects present and modern times with the great civilization of the past. Such a connection is never so vividly shown in the detached history of England and America.

Another concept derived from the study of European history, of even higher value than that just mentioned, is internationalism, or, rather, the negation of nationalism. Conceptions of the present day are intensely national, while current events testify to an age of national bigotry and its resultant evils. But in the history of the world nations are in fact of recent and casual growth. If we would have a historical course that puts things in their true perspective, it must not be local or national, but general.

Again, foremost among the lessons to be learned from history, I believe, is a sense of time. That is to say, not dates or chronology alone, though these may help, but time as measured by what is accomplished.

Just as the geologic ages are defined by their deposits, so the periods of history, whether they be long or short, are marked by the things that are done. This idea in its fulness does not come from the study of a single period or a short space of time; even the three centuries of modern times is not enough. We need a perspective of the whole of European history and comparative views of one century or cycle with another. In this point a course in English history has manifest advantages over one in American history.

As to the attack that is being made upon the course in general history, I know of none within our college itself. The criticism, or question, comes entirely from without, particularly from the schools that prefer not to give the natural prerequisite of the course. The preliminary requirement has been ancient history. But the high schools, while they are giving up the classics, are less and less inclined to teach ancient history. Where they are teaching it at all, they give it early in the school course farthest away from the student's present memory. There is a tendency, too, to allow for ancient history a shorter time than formerly, that is, three hours a week instead of five; so that existing standards become harder and harder to live up to. Shall the college therefore modify its requirement of ancient history? Under pressure from the New York City schools, which are teaching ancient history hardly at all, but are giving an excellent course in medieval and modern history, we have at length yielded to the extent of recognizing the latter course as a substitute for ancient history. Although it is but a temporary expedient, it probably forecasts a policy of alternative requirements in the future. Whether we shall go so far as to accept English or American history as similar alternatives, is less certain. An influence in this direction is felt from Bryn Mawr, whose preparatory schools are giving English instead of classical history. But for the sake of the homogeneity of our college classes, we have not as yet let down the bars further in the way of alternative entrance requirements.

Thus the department is in the somewhat illogical position of receiving into its first course students of diverse preparation, some with ancient history and some with medieval and modern. The latter are going over the same ground twice. Is there danger here, between school and college, of duplication of work? In other departments, such as mathematics and language, there has been complaint of unnecessary duplication. But thus far in history no student has been found to be so surfeited with knowledge as to find the college course going over the ground a second time repetitious or uninteresting; she has in fact rather profited from the new point of view and method of the college teacher. If the need should arise, the students might be grouped, according to their previous training, in different sections without affecting the unity of the course. So that for all these reasons the integrity of the general course in European history, dating from the later days of the Roman Empire to the nineteenth century, required of all students in their first or second year, is likely to be maintained in our college for some years to come.

SCOPE AND PURPOSE OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE.

By JESSE E. WRENCH, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

The previous speakers have covered in the main much of the ground that I should like to cover. I was especially interested in the remarks of the chairman concerning the chaotic condition of the teaching of history. I suppose all of us are familiar with those text-books of high school history which label themselves, "For high schools and colleges." It speaks rather ill for our pedagogy that we are willing to accept such things and use them for high school and college class work. We cannot blame the poor teachers in high schools, because they have to take what the publishers send them; but it is a wonder that we are willing as college teachers of history to write such text-books, because the majority of the various texts that appear in that way bear the name of some one or the other of us. I am not directly but indirectly guilty myself as to one of these things; so I can speak with some feeling in the matter.

It seems to me that our course in History I is by far the most important course, to put it very plausibly. In order to understand what we ought to give in this course, it is perhaps necessary to find out what exactly is its function. Mr. Frayer has said in his brief remarks some very pertinent things about what we ought to try to do; but I would like to look further than that and see just exactly what relationship the proper course should bear to the whole curriculum. You see, we teachers have been rather enthusiastic in our point of view in regard to this matter. We have looked at it entirely from our own standpoint, when we have spoken about the personality of the teacher as the dominant thing in determining what should be the type of course and the kind of work given in history. Will they stand for that sort of thing in economics, or in language, or even in the classics? Of course not!

Now then, History I, it seems to me, fulfills a double function. In most colleges—in every one with which I am conversant—History I is almost always a required course, and its value is recognized in furthering the work of other departments, such as social science. The previous speaker has just spoken of its immense value in advancing other college work. It seems to me that is one of the things which must be taken into consideration in determining what shall be the field of History I, namely, its function in the university work.

In the second place, it seems to me that, since so many people in it are forced into it, we should take into consideration that these people are not in it because they want to be, but because they have to be in it; and therefore this course should be an attractive course. In order to be an attractive course it has further got to be something new, or something decidedly startling. In order to be something new you have got to go back to something that is relatively remote in a freshman's mind. The freshman comes up from high school as a rule with his last course in

American history. Therefore to put him into American history at once would be illogical, because he has just been over that ground, perhaps very much at first hand.

This course should be flexible. I would not by any means rule out the personality of the teacher. It seems to me that personality plays a very large part, although I would go so far as to say that if a person cannot do anything but lecture he has no business in teaching History I. I would not like to say that lecturing has no part in a History I program. It does give opportunity for the personality of the teacher. But we should not try, by telling the student this, that, or the other thing, to make him or her a historian at the first shot. In fact, I was told only this morning about a course in history in which the average student was extremely disgusted, because there was so much pedantic effort in it. The method must be flexible in that it gives opportunity for the student to utilize some of his own ideas. Therefore it must have a field that is sufficiently broad, a scope that is broad enough to let other things in; therefore the field must not be too limited, because in a limited field you are going very much into details. Details, it seems to me, often injuriously affect the freshman's point of view. Turn the freshman loose on any one of these parallel source-books on the matter of details, and see where he gets with it. He cannot handle details; he only sees large things; so this course must cover relatively large things.

This course must be efficient in that it gets somewhere. We have already heard what various things it has tried to do; but it seems to me that the course in History I, which is very largely for people who never take any more history, should get somewhere. Fifty or sixty per cent. of our own students in Missouri never take another course in history. The place for it does not permit of the assimilation of too many of the facts of history. Those facts that it does deal with should come out somewhere so as to connect with the present time and not drop off at 1870; because I disagree with that body of historians who feel that modern history leaves off at 1870 and everything after that is merely contemporary politics.

This course, then, should have the three characteristics of attractiveness, flexibility, and efficiency.

Now as to the possible fields of history that the course should deal with, it seems to me that there are three possible solutions; first, general history, covering the whole field from the cave man to Bismarck, as some one has so facetiously put it. Then there is another field of medieval-modern history, whose claims have been already presented by Mr. Frayer. Last of all, there is the modern history field.

It seems to me that we must take into consideration the question of the time that can be given to history. In our university we spend five hours a week for one semester. It is obviously impossible to get over the whole field of general history in that time. It might be possible to cover that field in a three-hour course given throughout the year where we have some time for elimination; but with a course that gives five hours

a week for a semester it is impossible to cover that general field. If it were possible to cover, it would be an ideal field, because this course in general history is the one that gives opportunity, if any, to the student really to comprehend what history is. I know there is a great deal of difference of opinion as to exactly what history is. It seems to me that the great and vital thing is the light that it throws on human development. The one thing that we get through the student's head by a proper history course is that idea of development—if we get it through his head at all. The difficult thing is to get that conception of gradual development and transformation that only a general course can really give us. We shall have to assume that the student has acquired, before you start out with him, a lot of things that you have not had time to teach him, and which you can only just briefly hint at in a course on medieval-modern history. Because for practical purposes I think that we must in the limited time at our disposal confine ourselves to medieval and modern, or modern with enough emphasis on the medieval to get the development point of view—the point of view of development extending over a long period of time. Otherwise the important effect of the beginning history is lacking. So I would put forth my plea for medieval and modern history, with a certain amount of emphasis on the medieval period.

Now shall there be one, or more, courses of history? I think it is time that we set our foot down for one course. We have been working at cross-purposes too long. We have been giving this and that history, and depending upon personality or situation too much.

In order to maintain our position in the college curriculum it seems to me that we should start out with some basic ideas of work and establish our theory on a sound scientific basis. We must have our developmental work. This developmental idea, as our chairman has said, should begin with our sophomore and go through the junior and senior work. I speak from personal experience in that matter. When I was in one of the great universities of the land I was slammed into a graduate course in the very early part of my career, and I have always felt a tremendous lack in a certain fundamental field that never should have been allowed to take place. But it does take place in many of our great institutions, simply because we have not a scientific standard of teaching, but are following a hit or miss sort of plan, depending too much upon the personality of the teacher.

THE FIELD OF INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY COLLEGE HISTORY.

BY MILTON R. GUTSCH, UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS.

The first year college course in history ought to have five qualifications. It ought to be suited for elementary training in the methods of historical study. The content ought to be inclusive enough to make it a foundation for general courses in other fields or advanced courses in the same field of history. Its scope ought to be sufficiently extensive to give the student a general conception of history as a whole, and on the

other hand sufficiently restricted to permit intensive study of typical institutions and significant movements. It ought to meet in subject matter, as far as possible, the recommendations of other departments and the consequent demands of the students in those departments; and lastly, it ought to emphasize by its content the relation between the high school and the university.

That the first year course ought to teach the student the elementary processes of historical study, requires no argument. If this is properly done it will make unnecessary the duplication and reduplication of such elementary instruction in the subsequent courses, and at the same time, provide a good working equipment for that large group of students who at the end of one or two years leave the university to take up the teaching profession. Both ancient history and medieval history are well adapted to meet this requirement, since the source materials with which they deal are condensed in form and content. English history is even better fitted for such elementary instruction. The sources are easily accessible, most of them can be used in the original language, and they are so diverse in form that the student gets a far better opinion of the character of historical materials than he can in either ancient or medieval history.

Secondly, the information imparted in the freshman course in history ought to be sufficiently extensive to form a good, solid foundation for any general course in another field or any advanced course in the same field of history. In this respect general history and English history alone qualify. English history, however, is really general history applied to a restricted geographical area. It adapts itself readily as a foundation course for ancient history, to which it is connected by the prehistoric remains, by the contact with the Greek colony of Marseilles and by the conquest of the Cæsars. The connection between England and the continent is even closer in medieval and modern times, and the institutions and movements of the latter are reflected in the former. For American history, English history as a background is absolutely essential. In all respects, therefore, English history is as well suited for a foundation course as is general history.

The first year course in history, furthermore, ought to give the student both a general conception of history as a whole, and a somewhat detailed knowledge of one of its divisions. The majority of students take no more than one course in history, and they take that for "general culture" as they call it. What they want is information, condensed in form, general in its nature, covering the whole field of history. General history, nevertheless, is too extensive. The student loses the thread of unity, and becomes hopelessly confused by a superficial study of innumerable movements and institutions, none of which he really understands. English history, on the other hand, is not open to these objections. It presents a general survey of history as a whole, and at the same time develops the history of a particular area with some detail. It is neither too general nor too technical.

Moreover, the freshman course in history ought to be selected with some regard to the recommendations of other departments and schools. Ancient history has the approval of the classical departments, but it can be taken as advantageously in the sophomore year as in the freshman. English history in many institutions is recommended or prescribed by the schools of law or commerce. Students in these schools begin to specialize in the second year. Consequently, the logical place for history in their programs is in the first year.

Lastly, the first year course in history ought to emphasize by its content the relation between the high school and the university. There seems, however, to be no definite connection between the number of courses in history a student has had in the high school and the proficiency he displays in the same subject in the university as measured by grades. On the basis of statistics, covering the grades of first year students for five years at the University of Texas, the student with three high school history courses does almost as well as the student with four courses, but not as well as the student with two courses who has the best record of all. The number of passes for four-course students is approximately seventy per cent.; for three-course students, sixty-nine per cent.; and for two-course students, seventy-two per cent. There is, however, a marked difference between these groups and the two groups comprising those students who have received entrance credit for but one course in history or for none at all. Of the 2,475 students examined, 452 had received no entrance credit in history and 18 had received credit for only one course. Of these two groups, 53 per cent., barely half, succeeded in passing the first year history course in the university. This failure cannot be attributed alone, however, to the fact that they had had little or no history in a high school of good standing; nor can it be argued that four courses in history give the student a certain pedagogical form as a result of which he will do better in university history than the student who has had but one course. The 452 students are students who entered the university on individual approval, without entrance examination or high school diploma. They are poorly prepared in everything. They have as much difficulty with their other courses as they have with history. A large part of this group withdraws from the university shortly after admission. The data for those students who have had but one course in history are insufficient to permit any conclusion. University history teachers agree, however, that the less attention given to any field of history in the high school, the better will be the claim of that field to recognition in the first year university curriculum. An examination of 2,475 students in the University of Texas who enrolled in freshman history between 1911 and 1916, showed that 1,979, or 80 per cent., had had ancient history in the high school; 1,911, or 77 per cent., medieval and modern; 1,386, or 56 per cent., American, and only 946, or 38 per cent., English. Four-fifths had had ancient, three-fourths medieval and modern, almost three-fifths American,

but only a little more than a third English. If high school history work really counts for anything, and if conditions elsewhere approximate those in Texas, then duplication can be avoided for two-thirds of the students entering the university each year, by offering English history as the first year course.

In view of these facts, the writer has arrived at the conclusion that the same field ought to be offered as a first year course for all students, and that that field ought to be English history.

THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN THE SMALL COLLEGE.

BY ERNEST A. BALCH, KALAMAZOO COLLEGE.

I have been looking in vain for a representative of the small college to appear on this program—for the man who has not only to teach freshmen, but has to teach sophomores, juniors and seniors as well.

I am situated just that way; yet I have been able to do two of the things mentioned here this afternoon as being impracticable. First, I do not give all my first-year students the same course of study, regardless of preparation. I have about 75 students taking first-year history. These I have sectioned in this way: Those who have not had medieval history in the high school I put into a section which I start with the medieval period and hurry them through both medieval and modern history to the fall of Napoleon in one semester. Those who have had medieval history in high school I start with the sixteenth century and proceed more intensively. This year we began with 1500 A. D., using Professor Hayes' book—one semester through the Napoleonic period. During the second semester the two sections will be pursuing the same work, namely, the period from the Congress of Vienna to the present time.

The second thing I have been able to do is to use with freshmen classes such parallel source-studies as have been published. I devote one hour per week to this work. A good deal of the material is worked over in class, but the student has to finish the task by himself. I believe that the work has paid; at least, that is what those who have done the work with me have said. The students are able to work out these problems, and when they have constructed a historical narrative—more or less crude, of course, but their own—they take a good deal of pride in it. They have learned some of the principles of historical criticism, and as one student said recently, "Something of the immense task it is to write true history." I think this is worth while.

I would like to have some one else talk from the point of view of the small college man.

II. The Method

THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN COLLEGE HISTORY.

BY ROBERT H. GEORGE, YALE UNIVERSITY.

At the very outset, let me voice my belief that there is grave danger of being too didactic in the enunciation of the theories of method. It is my opinion that the

special powers of a lecturer or group of lecturers in a given institution may more properly determine the choice of method to be there followed than the most complete and elaborate of theories. Such value as may be possessed by the theories which I have to offer lies, therefore, in the fact that they have proven valuable in certain situations whose elements, or some of them, may possibly be duplicated elsewhere. Neither singly nor collectively do they savor of the panacea.

First of all, since methods are largely determined by the end in view, what is the purpose of the elementary course in history? It can be made to perform two functions. It can make the student familiar with some of the main events and movements of the historical field involved. It can also—and this is the greatest service the course may hope to render—it can also develop the intelligence of the student; it can foster something akin to historical-mindedness in his approach to matters historical and political.

It is with this second function of the course that I wish especially to deal. How should the course be conducted if the intelligence as well as the memory of the students is to be developed? Memory may be cultivated by a continuation of those methods with which all too many have been made familiar in their preparation for college. Such methods give special attention to assignments in text-books with emphasis on black type and italics, to rigid outlines, and to frequent tests of memory by means of short papers and recitations. But the college course in history, even if it be the elementary course, is not functioning properly if it merely continues along these lines. Some new stimuli must be applied, if intelligence and appreciation, as well as memory, are to be developed.

To my mind the greatest stimulus which may be brought to bear upon the student is that furnished by reading of other than text-book character. I do not mean to advocate the abandonment of the text-book, which I consider the best means of acquainting the student with the necessary minimum of facts. But I am convinced that prescribed reading in the best of text-books must constantly be supplemented by reading of another sort, if the course is to fulfil its main purpose. Such reading may be found in special chapters of the more advanced text-books. It may be such unusual source material as Einhard's "Charlemagne," or Jocelin of Brakelonde, or Benvenuto Cellini's "Autobiography." It may be the work of one of the literary historians—Macaulay's "Frederick the Great," for example. It may consist in extracts from scholarly works—such extracts as Munro and Sellery have placed at our disposal. Or it may be found in books of the type of Dill's "Roman Empire," Haskins' "Normans," or Johnston's "Napoleon." But wherever found the value of such reading is the same. It forces the student to think for himself, or at least to make an intellectual effort of a different character from that required to master a text-book chapter; especially if that chapter be predigested. Usually, also, such reading deals quite as much with ideas as with facts, and possesses some literary value.

In so doing it stresses what Trevelyan calls "the intellectual and emotional values of history"—an emphasis which does much to rob the elementary study of history of its proverbially dry character.

To be sure, students will flounder about in such reading for a time, especially if they be unused to this type of mental exercise. But floundering in Dill or in Einhard in the early days of the course is productive of intellectual growth, and is, furthermore, almost certain to furnish materials for stimulating discussion.

This leads me to my second theory. I have come to believe that under ordinary circumstances classes may most profitably be conducted by the discussion method. This does not place a ban on informal lecturing, but a good share of the solid work of the course is done by discussion in which students and instructor co-operate. But this, you say, is merely the recitation method! So it is if the students are acquainted merely with text-book facts. If their historical field of vision be thus limited the class meeting may, in spite of informal lecturing, become as mechanical as recitations limited in subject to questions propounded to the student at the end of each text-book chapter he has read. If, however, such reading as that which I have indicated be made available, the student is in a position to participate in discussion. Such discussion can be made to strengthen the stimulus which the student's appreciative faculties have received from the reading, and further to develop an intelligent approach to history and politics.

Written tests may be made to serve the same end. Accuracy of memory may be tested by very short papers, but if the student's intelligent grasp of the subject is to be tested, twenty- or better thirty-minute papers are necessary. In a period shorter than twenty minutes it is virtually impossible to develop an idea and properly to express it, and the intelligent development and expression of ideas is, I hold, one great aim of the elementary course in history. Incidentally, weekly papers of this length with their demand for thought and careful expression are of great value, for students are prone to endeavor to meet the conditions of the test, and if intelligence as well as memory be required, they are reasonably quick to cultivate intelligence.

Collateral reading offers still another opportunity for the theories already outlined to be brought into play. Each student should, I believe, be required to read extensively in books of an advanced character on, let us say, four topics during the course of the year. In such reading he should be encouraged to look for ideas and points of view, as well as for salient facts, and to develop the faculty of reading a serious book and assimilating its general content. The most informal discussion in groups of four or five will, I am certain, both test and encourage such reading, and furthermore, develop an intimate relationship between instructor and student which may prove of the greatest value.

So far I have said nothing of that organization which is so essential to the success of an elementary course covering an extensive field. However, I would

cut this organization down to the necessary minimum. The student universities of Bologna early discovered the necessity of insisting that the masters fulfil their contracts: that they cover the entire field of the course with proper distribution of emphasis. If this result is ever to be obtained, a chart of the course is necessary, but the roughest of charts will suffice. Some sort of stabilizer is necessary, too, to keep the craft steady upon its charted course and to insure safe and prompt arrival in the final port.

Such a rough chart and such a stabilizer are furnished by the simplest variety of syllabus. This should, in my estimation, contain merely a list of the larger topics to be considered together with the prescribed reading on each and a list of subjects available for collateral reading. This is, I believe, sufficient to indicate to the student the general direction in which he is traveling, and to keep the instructor from dwelling too long on a loved topic with disastrous results as regards the final weeks of the course. I do not believe in furnishing a topical outline with the syllabus, for I am convinced that the only valuable outline is that which the student himself evolves on the basis of his reading and of class discussion.

There are difficulties a-plenty to be overcome in carrying into execution such theories as these. A sufficient teaching staff must be provided to handle the large course in sections of twenty-odd, if the discussion method is to prosper. The work of the various instructors must in some measure be correlated. Books must be provided in considerable numbers, if the plan of offering reading of an advanced nature is to be followed. Books must also be made accessible for reading on collateral topics. The instructor must be willing to sacrifice a considerable amount of time to small group-conferences on collateral reading. And, above all, there must be developed in the students a new attitude towards their reading and class exercises. But all these difficulties can be overcome, and by the application of some of these theories the elementary course in history may profit.

THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN COLLEGE HISTORY.

BY CURTIS HOWE WALKER, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

The following paper deals with "The Method of the Elementary Course in College History" as we have had experience of the matter at the University of Chicago. It aims, *first*, to give a brief outline of the situation at Chicago; *second*, to emphasize what, to the writer, seem some of the strong points of the system; *third*, to suggest one line at least along which improvement might well be sought. I turn to a consideration of the first topic.

Experience at Chicago early led to the abandonment of the system in which the class as a whole is brought together once or twice a week for a lecture, and then split up into quiz sections. For this system was substituted that which we now have. This consists in dividing the class permanently into sections of thirty to thirty-five, and giving each of these sections into the sole charge of one person. To these instructors,

who grade from teaching-fellow up to associate professor, is given practically free rein to do as they will. The only limitations on their own initiative and wish are (1) a common agreement as to text-books, (2) the use of the "Study Manual," and (3) a general understanding that, in the conduct of the work, discussion is to predominate over lecture.

The "Study Manual" outlines the subjects which are to be taken up week by week, and gives the reading, prescribed and collateral, for those subjects. Since the number of books to which reference is made, under the head of "Collateral Reading," averages per week between twenty-five and thirty, to say nothing of half-a-dozen volumes referred to under the head of "Contemporary Literature," each instructor has a wide latitude of choice. No attempt is made in the "Manual" to prescribe the way in which the weekly subjects shall be taken up.

As to reviews, written tests, and final examinations, each man is left free to do as he wishes. No attempt is made to come to an agreement upon a final examination paper, although there has been once in a while an *ex post facto* meeting to discuss the examinations set by each man, with a view to finding out what the various instructors are doing, so that each may profit by the experience of all.

Such, in brief, is the general outline of the method adopted at Chicago for the handling of the elementary history course. I wish next to emphasize what seem to me to be some of the strong points of the system.

In the first place, the system avoids the pitfalls of professionalization, as exemplified especially by the too technical use of sources, and by the term-paper with elaborate notes and bibliographical equipment. I am old-fashioned enough still to believe in a general education as a prerequisite for the person who wishes to attain a high place in his special line, be it business, medicine, law, art, or scholarship. And it is, furthermore, as a part of this general education that the elementary course in college history, as I conceive it, has its place. It seems to me that this fundamental aspect of the elementary history course cannot be emphasized too strongly, for it should condition and guide the aims of all those engaged in teaching such a course. If this fact were held constantly in mind, history teachers would less often stray into the pitfalls of professionalization.

Again, on the positive side, the course at Chicago is strong because, in the words of our chairman, it uses the whole apparatus of outside reading "to satisfy the larger needs of all the members of the class."

Perhaps, before developing this point, I should say, by way of explanation, that, in the administration of the books available for outside reading, two changes have recently been introduced that noticeably increase the efficiency of the work. In the first place, a scheme has been devised which enables us to permit the students to have direct access to the shelves on which the reserved books are kept, so that they may exercise some choice in securing their books. The other change, or perhaps better, innovation, consists in making up sets of six or eight books, selected from

those most essential for any one term, and renting those out to the students for a dollar or two a term.

Operating with these modifications, the strong side of our collateral reading work consists in the relatively free play given the student in his choice of reading matter. The list for each week offers the student a choice from many kinds of books. Furthermore, to a very considerable degree, the student is left free to read that part of a book which he particularly wishes, since very frequently the reference is merely to the book as a whole, or to groups of chapters, and only rarely to restricted page references. Such freedom in the choice and use of books is, doubtless, both a privilege and a peril. The student, unless he already has done a good deal of independent reading for himself, is apt to get swamped or snagged in his first attempts. Nevertheless, this is just the kind of exercise that he needs most, and that is most profitable for him at this stage of his development. With proper guidance, he soon rights himself, and begins to gain in that *power of selection and judgment* which Matthew Arnold so forcefully and so justly emphasized as among the most fundamental and valuable intellectual qualities that can be developed by training.

In developing these qualities, much doubtless depends on the character of the notes that the students are required to take on the reading, and there is to be found among us in this matter a wide diversity of practice. Most of us, while still requiring for certain kinds of books and from certain kinds of students analytical or graphical outlines and digests of material, are more inclined to substitute briefer reports on the nature of the ground covered during the week, informal topical reports or essays, and, particularly, *summaries of impressions*, rather than summaries of all the matter in a reference. In training students to write summaries of their impressions obtained from the week's reading, they are advised to take whatever notes they wish for themselves, digests, outlines, incidental jottings, as the case may be. Then, when the reading for the week has been finished, to sit down and, either with or without the aid of the notes already taken, try to give the instructor an idea of what the reading for the week has meant for them along the line of suggestions, new angles on more or less familiar things, new ideas about the immediate subject in hand or about social development in general, new subjects of interest, new characters, or new books. If a student is afraid that his report to the instructor doesn't sufficiently indicate the ground that has been covered, he can hand in both sets of notes, those taken for himself and the report written for the instructor. The advantages of this type of report over the more familiar digest and outline are various. Chief among these is the fact that the emphasis is placed on the *knowledge* the student has gained during the week rather than on the amount of informational sawdust he may have industriously heaped up. Such a report, even if brief and inadequate, at least is vital, and gives the instructor just the kind of opening he wants in dealing with the particular needs of each individual

student. Especially does it enable the instructor to help the student to manipulate the collateral reading to his own best advantage, to choose the books that will mean most to him; perhaps even to read along the line of some special interest, not expressly provided for in the syllabus, but the pursuit of which may be the means of unlocking for the first time for that particular student the reality and meaning that is to be found in the historical process as a whole.

One strives naturally for devices to make the student feel the *reality* of the thing about which he is studying. One such device that some of us have employed, and that has secured excellent results, has been that of the *imaginative theme*. In one such theme, the writer, who was a girl, represents her heroine as a noble heiress, doomed by King John of England, to marry one of his unscrupulous adherents, for whom, all unwittingly as it appeared later, she chose no less a name than that of "Henry James." To this distinguished villain she was to be married on the no less distinguished date of June 15, 1215. When "rosy-fingered dawn" began ushering in the course of this historic day, the heroine is discovered as a prisoner in a tower room, against the door of which she has, with desperate valor, piled all the scanty furniture that medieval life afforded, determined to resist to the last, in spite of the fact that her lover, one of the revolting barons, had, in desperation, advised her to yield to John's demands. Slowly the day dragged out its weary course, when suddenly, from the window, she perceived her lover in the distance, breathlessly urging his horse forward at full speed. Anxiously she waited for his approach, hope faintly struggling with her fears. She was not long left in doubt, for, no sooner were horse and rider within earshot, than her lover, waving his hand triumphantly aloft, shouted to her exultantly that the barons had just compelled John to sign the Magna Charta in which he promised to give up the odious practice of which she had been about to be the victim, and that, therefore, they were free to marry. In a transport of joy she hurled herself from the window into his arms, and was borne off at a gallop, rejoicing! Whatever cavils one may raise as to the accuracy of minor details in this picture, one is forced to admit that the writer has come to appreciate as real at least one aspect of feudal law and practice in the Middle Ages.

The strong points of the system at Chicago, as they appear to the writer, are, therefore, that it avoids the pitfalls of professionalization; that the collateral reading is so administered that it tends to widen the student's vision, develop his powers to get from a book the thing he wants from it, and to reveal the meaning and fascination of history to those to whom history has remained, hitherto, a closed book.

I wish now, passing over a number of things to which I should like to advert by way of criticism, to take up my third topic which relates to the *teaching of historical geography*.

There is no doubt that this subject is being ineffectively taught, not only at Chicago, but also at the great majority of our educational institutions, high

and low. The reasons for this state of things, I should like, in closing, briefly to suggest.

In the first place, the subject is by nature difficult, because it is concerned primarily with conceptions of space, and, therefore, calls more continuously and more insistently for the exercise of the faculty of visualization than does the general run of historical facts. In the second place, the geography teachers in the elementary and high schools fail to teach geography. Thirdly, the history teacher has been trained as a history teacher, rather than as a teacher of geography, and hence feels out of his element in trying to deal with geographical facts and bring them home to the student. In the fourth place, the teacher is handicapped by the character of the maps at his disposal, both for use on wall, and in text and atlas. The majority of these maps are built on a totally wrong principle, inasmuch as they all emphasize boundary line at the expense of physical feature. They do this both by the use of very heavy black markings and by color, with the result that distinctive features, such, for example, as the Vosges and the Meuse, are obscured or disappear altogether. Furthermore, the scale used for maps in text and atlas is often so small as to make the map of little value. In the fifth place, and finally, the methods used by the history teacher are often inadequate and frequently poorly applied. To begin with, the end to be attained is not conceived with sufficient clearness. This, undoubtedly, should be to teach the student to think in terms of physical features, and to associate, in his thinking, boundary line and physical feature. As a result, there is failure to make sufficient use of physical maps both in the presence of the class and in assignments. Likewise, in the use of outline maps, there is insufficient emphasis laid on the *labelling* of physical features, and the student is allowed to follow the evil example of the historical maps in text and atlas, laying in his boundary line with a heavy hand and revelling in color. In the second place, practically every teacher places an overdependence on the wall-map, but the wall-map is a broken reed, for only a few of the class are near enough to get anything from it. Again, many teachers who make students fill out outline maps, do not require them to be able to reproduce their material from memory. This omission is fatal. Then, too, the outline map method itself, is, at best, far from satisfactory, since it fails to give the student much real knowledge of permanent character. Finally, while there is a general appreciation of the sketch-map method as the only device, yet in use, that really forces the student to get a grasp of the matter, the lack of training in drawing, both on the part of the teacher and student, has hitherto prevented any general and widespread use of the method.

Such criticisms suggest the advisability of a program of reform. The teaching of historical geography is at present a weak spot all along the line. It seems to me that this association might well, in the near future, direct some of its inquisitorial and reforming activity to a consideration of this particular matter.

THE PRINCETON LABORATORY SYSTEM IN ELEMENTARY HISTORY.

BY HENRY R. SHIPMAN, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.

In the time permitted to me I shall try to make clear that which is distinctive, although probably not unique, about Princeton's method of conducting an elementary history course. Our course, for sophomores, covers the period from the late Roman Empire to 1500—medieval history. The students are required to attend each week one lecture given to the entire class, one recitation in a group of about seventeen and one laboratory period of two hours. The lecture is based largely on Munro and Sellery's "Syllabus of Medieval History," the recitation principally on Robinson's "History of Western Europe," and Munro and Sellery's "Medieval Civilization;" an explanation of the laboratory work will be given in this paper, for it is the sole excuse for the infliction of this short statement upon you.

The laboratory with us consists simply of a lecture room fitted with benches and chairs and a book case with a few books in it, the work done in the laboratory largely the preparation of what are called topical reports. These reports are based on source material and that alone. Examples will make clear their character. A topic which has proved successful is "The Society of the Salian Franks," based on the translation of Salic Law in Henderson's Documents. That is all. The student must dig out of this short source all there is to be known about this society and construct a picture. Another was based on Einhard's "Charlemagne;" "What was Charlemagne's Attitude toward Education, toward the Church," etc. Several short reports or a long one could result. "Why Were the Christians Persecuted," based on the "Translations and Reprints," is another. "A Comparison of the Treatment of Moses, Abraham and Joshua" in the Old Testament and in the Koran is an example of a report from a different field. The students are instructed first to read through the references; second, write down on cards notes on the subject they are looking for; third, write out the report based on these notes, giving references with authority and page, for each statement of fact in the report. Six to eight short reports of this character are required each semester; fewer if the reports be long. Naturally there is an attempt to start the year with simple topics and proceed later to subjects of greater difficulty. All work is done under supervision in the laboratory; none outside of it.

What are the advantages of this method? In what respects is it better than the old-fashioned recitation or quiz?

First, it develops "historical-mindedness," the primary object of all history courses. The only way to secure this object is to study history through its problems. The student develops the questioning attitude so that he will not be as prone to accept whatever he reads or hears without first examining its probability and without desiring to hear the other side. We are trying to develop thoughtful citizens. We are not attempting to turn sophomores into expert his-

torians, but we do believe that to require the students to perform mere memory work is an insufficient excuse for asking him to study history. He must acquire an elementary knowledge of historical method.

The second advantage; and this is an offshoot from the first: the laboratory furnishes the best means for the study of problems. Probably we are all agreed that, if it be feasible, first-hand material and not second-hand should be read, but my own experience and that of my colleagues convince us that the source book cannot be used in connection with the recitation. I have tried it and failed, I confess it to my sorrow. The problem method forces the student to study the sources carefully and to show results from reading them. He understands why he is asked to read them.

The third advantage—and this may seem to savor of the boarding school, but we believe it is important—the student is compelled to spend two hours in the laboratory each week at work and under supervision. Difficulties are explained and much explanation is needed in the first weeks of the year. After all, you are sure that he is working. There is no presumption about it.

It is true that the student perhaps masters fewer details. He does not know as many facts as he would, were he quizzed for an hour, two or three times a week, but, if the problems are well chosen, he knows far more of the important things about these eleven hundred years. It may be said in passing that this method is best adapted to a period where the sources are not numerous and the problems are simple—the ancient or the medieval, very properly covered in elementary courses in college. It is in an elementary course that the students should acquire the proper viewpoint.

Is the method justified? We think that the results show that it is. Certainly the students approach the advanced courses with greater sense of direction.

THE REQUIRED COURSE IN HISTORY.

By CLARENCE P. GOULD, COLLEGE OF WOOSTER.

During the past fall I had occasion to send to the history teachers of the Ohio colleges and a few other institutions a series of questions concerning their methods of teaching. In the brief time at my disposal this afternoon I wish to give you, in addition to my own thoughts on the subject of discussion, some of the results obtained from this questionnaire.

Concerning the text-book in the introductory course in history, I find the use of some sort of a text quite general. Every reply received mentioned the use of a text in the introductory course, though in many instances the text was abandoned in the more advanced work. One Ohio teacher had experimented with a no-text method in introductory work, but had given up the plan. I like a very brief text to serve as a binder to hold together the more extensive and also more fragmentary readings, and also to supply a minimum of narrative for which every student can be held.

In conducting the class-room work so much depends upon the personality of the teacher that all

standardization is out of the question. In my own work I have always held in mind certain fundamentals. First, the class-room should not duplicate the study done out of class. This is not always avoidable in the more advanced work, where the student's reading is pushing nearer to the limits of the teacher's knowledge; but in the introductory course where only the surface is being scratched, it is possible to dwell upon causes, to bring out general movements, to supplement here and there with material that the text-book lacks, to enliven by the introduction of present-day analogies, and in general to present the material in a different light. The simple narrative, which does not admit of any differences in point of view, is passed over very hurriedly, or in parts not touched at all. The class is held responsible, however, for all the narrative given in the text-book; and test and examination questions are frequently asked about points of narrative that have not been referred to in class. In short, repetition is tolerated only for emphasis.

The second point of class-room method is to induce the students to think, to question, and to discuss. Questions and voluntary expressions of opinion are constantly invited and always cordially received. When an opinion is volunteered I always try to find some truth in it, if possible; and even a small kernel of truth is given emphasis at least equal to that given to any correction that may be necessary, so that the student will end with the feeling that his boldness in volunteering a suggestion has really added something to the class-hour.

One difficulty arises in the effort to make the recitation a rather free discussion. If a student feels that he is to be graded on everything he says, he is very apt to conceal his ignorance by saying as little as possible. To have the desired spirit in both the class and myself, therefore, I find it necessary to abandon all grading of recitations. The only check that I can exercise on the daily preparation is an occasional written lesson, which I seldom have time to read. My questionnaire showed, on the other hand, that more than seventy per cent. of those answering do use the recitation as a means of grading.

Reference readings as revealed in the questionnaire, are all but universally employed. But there is a wide variation in the emphasis laid upon them. Some teachers require as high as four times as much reading as text, while others just reverse that proportion. The majority require about twice as much reading as text. Checking up these readings seems an almost hopeless task. Some attempt it by means of special tests, some quiz over them in the class-room, some require honor statements of the amount of reading done, many have formal reports of results given in the class-room, and still others require that notes taken from the readings be handed in. A new library system inaugurated this year is making it possible for me to tell from the library records just which books each student has used. By this means I hope to eliminate much of the copying of notes.

Another question of method about which my answers did not agree is that of written reports on special

topics, or historical essays. Some stated that such reports were required as often as possible, and others stated emphatically that they were never required. Some specially commended the reading of essays in class-room, while another said of the same that nothing is more deadly. In my own work I can make no use of the essay in introductory classes, and use it in electives only as honor work.

METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN ELEMENTARY COLLEGE HISTORY.

By WILMER C. HARRIS, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

This whole question of methods of instruction turns upon another and more fundamental problem, namely, what is the main object of the freshman course in history? What are we trying to accomplish?

One answer is that we have a great multiplicity of aims—that the object of the elementary college course is to give the student a little of everything connected with the study of history to teach him how to take notes in class; to become familiar with the works of the great historians; to write an essay or historical monograph, based on wide reading, showing some power of discrimination in the use of authorities, organization of material, style, form, with page references properly placed; to give him some idea of the way in which history is written by introducing him to the problems of historical research; to teach him to use books and libraries; and, in addition, to teach him a considerable mass of facts, causes, events, results, leaders, dates and interpretations, incident to a course in the history of Europe from the time of the Roman Empire until to-day. It seems to me that the attempt to teach all this in the limited time at our disposal is bound to result in failure.

A second possible answer to the question is that there is one great object in the elementary college course; other aims may play a part, incidentally, but one thing should be emphasized. Those holding this view regard the progress of a student in history as developmental and evolutionary from the primary grades upward. They would have the history work differentiated, certain things being emphasized in each stage of the student's progress. Without attempting to map out the whole curriculum, what is the main object of the elementary college course?

The answer to this will depend upon the stage of development reached by the average student when he leaves the high school and enters college. In general, I believe that this average student's historical equipment, however much it may vary with individuals, consists of a more or less vague familiarity with certain more or less striking facts. He knows, for example, that Alfred was interested in learning; that Charlemagne was crowned on Christmas day; that Luther nailed ninety-five theses on the church door; and that the Bastile fell during the French Revolution. Perhaps some such facts as these are about all we should expect him to know; for the high school deliberately and properly emphasizes those things that are striking and will appeal to the pupil's imagination. The next step—and this to my mind is

the thing to be emphasized in the elementary college course—is to teach him to connect his facts; to make him see that the life of man is developmental and evolutionary; to give him some conception of the stream of history. Concretely, I would teach him to tell the story of the past life of man in Europe from the time of the Roman Empire until to-day. In other words, this second answer—and it represents my own position—is, that the main object of an outline course is the outline; the main object of a general course is the general view.

What is the best method for accomplishing this result? Is it the lecture system? Undoubtedly this would result in the student's having in his note-book a more or less correct version of the carefully organized and logically developed story of the past as worked out by the lecturer. But I believe a better method is the discussion method. The discussion method is flexible; the teacher may lecture informally or he may quiz for facts; the main point is for student and teacher to go over the lesson together, and try to understand it. Then the teacher will constantly emphasize the importance of keeping in mind the general evolution. But he will not do more than suggest this; he will leave it for each student to work out the bird's-eye view for himself. From time to time he may give a written examination with such questions as, "Tell the story of England from prehistoric times to 1066," or "Tell the story of France from earliest times to 887," or 1328 or any other date reached by the class in their studies. From these papers the teacher may select a few of the best as models to be read before the class. Good papers may differ widely in details, but they will agree in telling a consecutive story.

This conception of history and this telling of the story will give the student the historical background necessary for the advanced courses in special periods. He will see these special periods in their historical perspective—they will not stand isolated or suspended in the air. Logically, I would eliminate from the elementary course the preparation of a "term paper" on a special topic, for this comes more properly in courses dealing with special topics or special periods. I would also eliminate from the introductory course all ideas of the "historical laboratory." Historical research is the province of the scholar, not the novice, and may well be reserved for the graduate seminar. We may enjoy and derive benefit from a meal without knowing the arts of the kitchen; so the freshman may derive intellectual nourishment from his history without knowing the technique of the historian.

SOURCE STUDIES IN ELEMENTARY COLLEGE COURSE.

By DONALD L. McMURRY, VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY.

The topic which I wish to discuss is the question how far parallel source problems should be used in a course in medieval and modern history, three hours a week for one year, such as that given at Vanderbilt University. Mr. Frayer has stated that methods in a freshman course ought to be slighted so far as they

fail to arouse interest or give information to the student. This is especially true in a course in medieval and modern history such as seems to be generally favored by those who have discussed the field to be covered; the length of the period necessarily makes the content of the course rather thin. If source problems are used, only a few recitations in each term or semester can be devoted to them without making it appreciably thinner.

Under these conditions what problems can be used? No one of the books of parallel source problems which has been printed covers the field of the course; and the problems contained in any of them are of enough complexity and difficulty, so that I do not believe that in the time available I could do conscientious work with a freshman class. On the other hand, the greater part of the students in this course are never going to take any other history in college. It hardly seems proper that they should be turned out without any knowledge of the processes by which historical facts are established. Therefore, if it is in any way possible to give the student an introduction to some of those processes in a very simple way, in a few recitations, that is the ideal thing to do.

Now parallel source problems in an elementary course must be very simple; they should not include many sources, and they should not have too many questions to be answered, because the freshman's historical sense is comparatively undeveloped in most cases, and too much progress should not be expected in a few hours of recitation. What he needs after he is weaned from high school is semi-solid historical nourishment at first. If you try to start him on historical pork and beans, he is lost. He is not yet ready for simplified graduate work. Conversations with a number of students in more advanced undergraduate classes has led to the conclusion that, unless the teacher devotes a considerable amount of class-room time in explaining just how the students are to attack the problems, and perhaps illustrates by working out parts of them himself, even upper-classmen sometimes arrive at a state of mental indigestion. Most freshmen cannot handle any but simple problems without too great an expenditure of time.

It seems possible, however, that a great deal may be gained by the use of a few simple source problems, presented and partly worked out by the teacher with the active co-operation of the students. They may thus gain some elementary knowledge of the processes of historical criticism; the interdependence and independence of sources, and how facts are established and evaluated, which is intended not to give them the technique of historical research, but to develop an attitude of mind which will understand something of how facts in the text book have been discovered and determined, and why they are in the book. They can then more readily understand how two authorities can differ in their opinions of certain historical developments without necessarily damaging the reputation of either of them.

In order to proceed by this method, it is desirable to have for classroom use a book containing a number

of problems that extend over the field of medieval and modern history and which are simpler than those now obtainable. The teacher can take one of these problems, work it out, and show the class what is to be done, just as an example in algebra is worked out by the teacher before the students are given a set of problems to work. The student can learn by imitation things that it would take him a long time to discover by himself, and he can gain more by practicing what he has learned than by wondering how to attack unfamiliar material. Even if the teacher continues to do a large part of the work in order to save time, the student can gain from these exercises glimpses into the method of history such as he seldom gets from text books, fuller secondary works, or isolated documents. The occasional solution of such problems ought, without consuming a great amount of classroom time, to contribute something to the development of a historical attitude of mind.

THE ELEMENTARY COLLEGE COURSE IN HISTORY.

BY CARLTON J. H. HAYES, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

For many years the lecture system was employed in our elementary course at Columbia. For a time we had two lectures a week and a third hour of quiz; for a considerable length of time we tried one lecture a week and two hours of quiz. In 1909, however, we threw over the lecture system bag and baggage, because it was the experience of all of us who had to conduct the course that the disadvantages of the lecture system far outweighed the advantages. In our experience at Columbia we discovered in an acute degree these disadvantages: First, there was great difficulty in co-ordinating the lecture work and the quiz work. Secondly, there were unfortunate tendencies of the lecturers. Thus the full-professor-lecturer tended to ride his advanced research hobbies before college freshmen with the result that the freshmen were confused or mystified or rendered very drowsy. Likewise the lecturer tended to get out of touch with the individual student and accordingly to lose interest in him and to lack comprehension of his problems and points of view. The lecturer also tended, as he lost interest in and comprehension of his auditors, to make his own lecture quite stereotyped, repeating the same facts and the same jokes year after year.

Another serious disadvantage which we found in the lecture system was the fact that it represented too radical a break with high-school methods. I think we are likely to lose sight of the fact that the first two years of the American college are approximately the same, not as the first two years of a German university, but rather as the last two years of the gymnasium or the French lycée, and that neither Frenchmen nor Germans would think of employing university methods in their secondary schools. The experience of the Europeans is certainly not without value to Americans.

The most disadvantageous aspects of the lecture system was, with us and, I believe, is everywhere, the disgraceful and scandalous position of the quiz mas-

ters—the "bosses of section gangs." The persons who are put in charge of the difficult task of cross-questioning students week by week, are usually inexperienced in what demands a good deal of experience. They are always underpaid, and they are doing the disagreeable work only as a means of gaining experience, which, when gained, will mean ordinarily that they will win higher pay, not where they have done the work, but at another institution. The result of this situation is a constant flux of younger men back and forth through the elementary courses. It is the worst sort of educational policy. Young men fresh with their Ph.D.'s should be tried out and given their first experience in advanced special courses, not in the elementary course which is supposed to open the freshman's eyes to the broad and beautiful vistas of historical delight. The "boss of the gang" usually has a contempt for himself and certainly his students have a contempt for him. Students may tolerate and at times even venerate the lecturer; they do not venerate or always even tolerate the quiz master. This is one of the saddest and most unfortunate aspects of the lecture system. About the only reason I know why the system endures is the fact that it is cheaper financially as well as otherwise. The lecture system can be conducted by one well-paid lecturer and several minimum-wage "cubs," while the discussion system can properly be conducted only by a large number of fairly well-paid instructors and professors.

Inasmuch as the disadvantages seem to outweigh the advantages, we at Columbia in 1909 abandoned the lecture system, and at that time we substituted the recitation and informal lecture system. Our entire elementary class, comprising some 450 students, is now divided up into sections of 25 or 30 students each. Each such section is met three times a week by one and the same professor or instructor who assigns text-book and collateral reading references, hears recitations thereon, conducts written tests, lectures informally from time to time, oversees the preparation of term essays, assigns map studies, and regularly interviews every student on his work. To tie together the work of all the sections we have a presiding officer of instruction, frequent conferences of instructors, uniform final examination questions and a common syllabus which, however, is broad and general enough to allow a fair degree of latitude to the several instructors.

There is one matter of detail to which Mr. Walker has referred, the matter of historical geography, concerning which in conclusion I would say a word. We at Columbia, like so many of you, find that our students on entering college know very, very little geography; in fact the depths of their ignorance surpass understanding; yet how can a man learn any history who knows no geography? So we make our students in our elementary course draw historical maps—one map every week. These maps which we require are not merely copying from a single atlas—that would be manual training of the most inferior sort—but real map studies; *Problems in Historical Geography*, we call them, so stated that the student to solve them must read text and collateral reading and examine several

different atlases. I have not the time here to describe these map studies further, but anyone who is interested will find just how they have been worked out in the field of modern European history by two of our enthusiastic instructors at Columbia, Mr. Parker T. Moon and Mr. Austin P. Evans, by inspecting the pamphlet on exhibition here entitled "A Syllabus of Modern History with Map Studies," Columbia University, 1916. A similar set of map studies for American history prepared by my colleagues Professor Robert L. Schuyler and Mr. Dixon Ryan Fox will be found in another pamphlet, "A Syllabus of American History," Columbia University, 1915.

THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE

BY JAMES G. McDONALD, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

It is very late. I am as conscious of it as you can possibly be. I promise to finish within my five minutes, even at the risk of saying nothing. Keenly interested in Professor Hayes' attack on the lecture system and what he has chosen to call the "section boss," I am tempted to tell you a story. It was told to me with evident delight by one of my students when I was an assistant in History I at Harvard: "One morning after one of the elementary classes had been dismissed, an undergraduate, rushing up to an emaciated individual who happened to have lingered in the class room after most of the students had gone, said, 'Are you the assistant in this course?' The response was, 'No, that is not what is the matter with me. I have just had typhoid.'" Apparently Professor Hayes would have us believe that such a story as this aptly illustrates the students' conception of the assistant. I doubt it.

It must be admitted, however, that many of the charges made against the lecture system as ordinarily used can be maintained. But I am sure that these evils are not inherent in the system, because as used in Harvard's History I, the lecture method was, when I knew it, not merely free from most of the defects referred to a little while ago, but had a positive and definite value peculiarly its own. I understand that the course has not been changed and is still based upon an arrangement for co-operative lecturers. Five or six of the men, beginning with Professor Haskins and ending with Professor Coolidge, lecture to the students of History I during the year. This method, you may say, subjects the students to the possibility, not only of the evils of the ordinary lecture system, but also to an additional evil—lack of effective coordination.

Fortunately these evils, particularly the last, have been largely avoided through the whole-hearted co-operation of all concerned. But what surprised and delighted me with this plan of lecturing—and this is the unique value of this method which I wish to make clear to you—was the discovery that the boys of my sections, instead of going to sleep or of amusing themselves in other ways during the lectures, were gaining most stimulating inspiration from the lecturers themselves. Some of the boys were interested keenly in

Professor Haskins' interpretation of the Normans' role in European history, some were aroused by Professor Emerton's analysis of the reformation, some responded surprisingly to Professor Merriman's presentation of the history of the 17th and 18th centuries, while others found in Professor Gay's explanation of the industrial revolution the impetus to further inquiry. Similarly, Professor Johnston, Dr. Lord, and Professor Coolidge each aroused in different students a new interest in those phases of the 19th century which each discussed. Sometimes it was the unusual point of view of the lecturer that appealed to the student. More often, perhaps, it was the lecturer's personality. But whether point of view or personality, I am confident that this source of inspiration is of great value, and that it should be present as fully as may be in every History I. Harvard obtains this through her lecture system.

But have we not this afternoon limited ourselves too narrowly to the question of method of presentation? Is not the paramount question rather, what the student shall read? I am persuaded that one of the big things which the freshman ought to get out of his history course is the desire to read, and the knowledge that he can read, not merely text-books, but the really great histories. Any course is badly conducted in which the instructor limits himself to the assignment of a certain number of pages in the text from day to day. Our most important consideration is, I believe, that our students, in one way or another, should be enabled to find out that, for instance, Bryce's "The Holy Roman Empire," Mr. Thayer's "Cavour," or Morley's "Gladstone," are interesting books; or that Benvenuto Cellini's Autobiography and Joinville's "Chronicle" are as thrilling as the latest best sellers. Some of my students at Harvard found this out and were delightfully surprised to discover that such "big" books could be other than dull and dry.

So whether we have lecture or quiz, let us give our students an opportunity to get in touch with the books that really have value in themselves, a value which arouses interest, trains the judgment and develops a sense of critical appreciation. Text-books in history ordinarily do none of these things. To my mind it is little short of a crime to permit our students to go through the year of their college freshman history and know nothing more than their text-book, and the little that they may incidentally learn in addition. For after all what the student gets out of the course is not so much what the teacher gives in class, whether by discussion or lecture, as it is that which the boy or girl gets for himself or herself.

But how are we to encourage our students to get the habit of reading these "worth-while" books? There is, I presume, no general rule. Much will depend upon local conditions. But certainly, as one of the previous speakers has said, our students should have these books readily accessible. Nothing is more desirable for History I, Government I, Economics I, etc., than a special library or reading room—it need not be pretentious—into which the students may go, look at the books, handle them and become familiar

with their bindings at the very least. They will not, as a rule, content themselves with this "outside" information. Certainly if we have such a reading room, and if, in addition, we arrange our course so as to require some elementary acquaintance with the classic histories, we shall have gone far toward enabling our freshmen to discover that the standard books are worth reading, that they were written for them and that with a little practice they can enjoy them thoroughly. If we do this it will not matter much whether we give them a course in ancient, medieval, or modern history, or whether by lecture or discussion, because if they once discover that the great books are worth while they will go ahead and get the things which they need.

THE METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE.

BY ALBERT H. LYBYER, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

We have heard a great many very interesting statements. We have heard the most important points stated emphatically on the one side, and also on the other side. Each one seems to have spoken from his own experience as he has worked it out.

I have been connected with History I courses for something like ten years now. I suppose each one of us is on the whole best satisfied with something like the present situation which he has carried through. Of course we all feel that there are points which we wish especially to impress, and we are all trying to improve our courses in such directions.

I suppose that the freshmen courses of the University of Illinois come as near to being eclectic, or balanced, or composite, as any that could be devised; yet I do not feel, and I am sure my colleagues will bear me out in this, that we have reached the results that sometimes come from a balanced but really negative, ineffective, comparatively useless sort of scheme; I think that our combination has worked out on the whole pretty well. We do not believe that the lecture should be done away with. We think that there are two methods of imparting information just as there are two principal senses that are employed in acquiring information in education, the eye and the ear. You are engaged at this present moment in acquiring information by the ear. Of course there is some teaching by the ear in the method of the recitation and quiz, but in that method acquisition is primarily before the class hour and by the eye. A lecturer addresses himself directly and uninterruptedly to the ear. To exclude the lecture method entirely is to abandon a tested and developed device of great value, and is something that all of us at Illinois would oppose. We have open to freshmen a four-hour course and a three-hour course. Our four-hour course is the usual combination of medieval and modern history; our three-hour course is a course in English history; we have a balanced arrangement in each of these courses, approximately half of the time being given to the lecture and half the time to the quiz.

As to the use of textbooks, we like to have one text-

book and then refer to a great many other books. We also give the student choices from a wider range, for additional reading on topics that interest him.

In one respect we have not yet, on account of lack of space, been able to carry out what would be desirable, that is, something in the nature of a historical laboratory. It does seem desirable that the students should work to a certain extent under supervision.

Our constant endeavor is to combine in our schemes the better features of all good methods.

We offer this out of our experience.¹

METHOD OF THE ELEMENTARY COURSE IN THE SMALL COLLEGE.

BY L. H. GIPSON, WABASH COLLEGE.

As a representative of the small college, I should like to say a few words with special reference to the possibilities of work in historical method in connection with the History I course.

It has been clearly enough shown here to-day that, if you are going to present to the average student who comes into the history department any conception of how history is written; if you are going to disabuse his mind of the idea that text-books and lectures are all but divinely inspired, you have to do it in the beginning course in history. For experience shows that the average student will not take his second, not to mention his third or fourth year, in this subject. Personally I do not know of anything more fundamentally valuable which a student can secure from a history department than acquiring the ability, even to a small degree, of handling the facts of the past in a critical manner. To reserve this training exclusively for the graduate school seems to be the most paradoxical thing imaginable, considering the generally accepted purposes of history teaching. It surely is not enough that the instructor shall display his own efficiency in this regard. Is it not as impossible to turn out an efficient history student by this process as it is a skater? Will the student catch "historical-mindedness" from his instructor like the mumps? I think we are all agreed that he will acquire this by doing those things which will give his faculties the necessary training. However I do not wish to be mistaken. I would not turn History I into a course in historical method as some extreme advocates would favor doing. I would agree with those who would make the leading feature a study of movements in general European history.

To carry out this idea of getting the beginning student acquainted with the point-of-view as well as with some of the mechanism of historical composition, I have prepared and published for my students a little manual which I have entitled, "The Historical Monograph." In this manual, within the limits of a comparatively few pages, I have tried to state in a careful and concise way, in non-technical language,

¹ Professor Lybyer states that he will be glad to send a copy of the "Assignments in History I, University of Illinois," to any teacher of medieval and modern European history who will write to him.

just what principles underlie good historical composition, and how a student should go to work if he ever hopes to construct anything which is to possess merit in this field. I have found that good results, occasionally surprisingly good results, have come from the practice of placing this manual in the hands of every student upon his entering the department. These results have been obtained primarily in the preparation of the much-abused semester paper. One of the speakers has referred to the desirability of introducing the student to the books that are worth while pertaining to his field. My design is to get the student to become intimately acquainted with a number of these books in connection with this semester study. In fact, most of the reading that a student will do in the course, outside of the regularly assigned text-book work and occasional library reports, will be in connection with the investigation of his semester topic. The topic of course, is selected with care so as to permit and encourage rather extensive reading.

In mentioning text-books, I should like to say, in addition, that I am a firm believer in the value of texts, provided, of course, that they have been prepared by competent workmen. Students in History I at Wabash are expected to buy a number during the year which they use in connection with the working up of a syllabus. It is my custom to alternate quizzes with informal lectures.

The advantages of the above program for a History I course, it seems to me, are, that it gives the student an opportunity, that otherwise he probably would never have again, of cultivating to some extent a constructively critical attitude toward history. In doing this, he will get acquainted with a number of the more important works in the field which he is covering; he will get a rounded view of events by following consistently his text-book assignments, and in the purchasing of these required books will be laying the foundations of a private library, something that has the most subtle influence in the making of a scholar; his syllabus will tend to thoroughness of work; he will be stimulated and kept in trim by the quizzes and discussions; lastly, through the lectures he will be led to perceive the wider significance of the facts with which he is dealing.

The January number of "The London Quarterly Review" has an interesting article by Principal H. B. Workman on "Medieval Schools," dwelling particularly on those in England. Other articles of interest in this issue are: "By-Paths of Papal History," by W. Ernest Beet, and "One of Cromwell's Chaplains, Peter Sterry," by Fred J. Powicke.

The January number of "The Edinburgh Review" publishes John Mavrogordato's article on "The End of Greek Monarchy," which, according to the author, is now at hand if the Greeks will only have courage of their convictions and declare for Venizelos.

Sir Edwin Pears gives a most charming account of his "Impressions of a Recent Tour in the United States" in "The Contemporary Review" for February, and Commendatore Prof. G. Boni writes in the same magazine on "Excavations on the Palatine."

What Should We Attempt in Collateral Reading and How Shall We Test It?¹

BY WILLIAM W. WUESTHOFF, HEAD OF THE HISTORY DEPARTMENT, ROCKFORD HIGH SCHOOL, ROCKFORD, ILL.

One of the objects of teaching history is to help the pupils acquire some knowledge of history. But it is just as important that the pupils should acquire a fondness and taste for historical reading. The pupil may acquire facts from class attendance, but he can gain vastly more in later years through further historical reading. This is only possible in the future if he has a knowledge of books that are worth reading and reliable. He can only do this if he has acquired the power and ability to study the subject systematically himself. A fondness for historical reading is most easily aroused through the use of collateral reading. In the United States the textbook method seems to have been popular in the past, but within late years a reform has come about. We all must admit now that some collateral reading is necessary. Textbooks as a rule are not entirely self-explanatory to all pupils. Most of the books require frequent elaboration. So our problem is a textbook with elaboration by the teacher and elaboration by means of collateral reading. The Madison Conference strongly emphasized the need of reference books. "Recitations alone," it was declared, "cannot possibly make up proper teaching of history. It is absolutely necessary from the earliest to the last grades, that there should be parallel reading of some kind. The main necessity is that the teachers should have it firmly fixed in their minds that it is impossible to teach history without reference books, as it is to teach chemistry without glass and rubber tubing." This was in 1892. The Committee of Seven of 1899 found little difference of opinion "on the question of supplementing the textbooks with additional reading of some sort." There were some conditions existing then which unfortunately still exist to-day, namely, the lack of specified required collateral reading, and that pupils are left to brouse too much without any system. Too much of the work assigned to-day is still wholly optional with the pupil.

In order to make this discussion more definite a plan which is being used in Rockford will be explained in detail. It is not assumed that the plan is the best or perfect, still it is a successful attempt to systematize the collateral reading.

To make it really possible to do good work with collateral reading one must have the co-operation of a library, either city or high school. As a rule librarians look upon themselves as educators and are ready to co-operate with the teachers. In Rockford City Library all effort is made to help the pupils. History books needed by pupils are kept on open

shelves in the reference room. This means that the books are not to be taken out of the library, and at the same time it gives the pupils a chance to get into the library environment. But one's interest is particularly attracted to the Rockford High School Library because it comes closer to the pupils. This library is entering upon its second year and already has some 3000 books. Let us remember that the library is the history department's laboratory. We should expect a regular and equal appropriation for this library as for the laboratory of the science department. A trained librarian has charge of the high school library, and during the year gives talks to the pupils and instructs them on how to use the library. The library is conducted on the open-shelf plan and this gives the pupils all the possible chance to brouse. Pupils are admitted to the library by an admit issued to them and signed by the teacher who is requesting them to do reading in the library. The admit plan keeps out of the library those who have nothing to do there in particular and makes it possible for others who have work there to get their books. Student control has charge of the library at all times, maintaining order, collecting admits and returning them to the teachers who issued them. The best indication that the library is being used is that practically every chair is taken every hour. Admits are collected at the door so as to admit only the number that the library can take care of. Many pupils are sent back to their study halls because the library is crowded. As many as thirty-five to forty admits are returned to me per day, which means that at least one-third of my pupils are in the library daily.

What can we expect these pupils to do in this laboratory? In the assignment of collateral reading the first rule is to avoid waste of time in making the assignment. The list of readings for the week or for several weeks, should be mimeographed and distributed in class. It is also a good plan to have copies of the lists posted in the libraries. My experience has been that readings should be assigned by topics and not by one long group of references covering several topics. The following is a copy of the first two topics to be read by the Greek history pupils. The mimeographed sheets contain about four topics and are distributed to the pupils from time to time. Such reading lists are provided for all courses, namely, Greek and Roman history, modern history, and United States history.

Collateral Reading for Greek History:

All pupils must read at least ten pages from each group. Notes must be taken on all readings in note book with the name of the author, name of the book, and page references cited.

¹ A paper presented to the History Section of Northern Illinois Association, at Dixon, Ill., October 27, 1916.

Chapters refer to chapters in Morey's Ancient Peoples.

CHAPTER I—EARLY MAN.

- Clodd, "Primitive Man," 35-179.
 Starr, "First Steps in Human Progress," 11-241.
 Holbrook, "Cave, Mound and Lake Dwellers, 9-130.
 Seignobos, "History of Ancient Civilization," 1-10.
 West, "Ancient World" (revised), 1-10.
 Myers, "Ancient History," 1-12.
 Robinson & Breasted, "Outlines of European History, Part I," 1-16.
 Hoernes, "Primitive Man," 1-102.
 Keary, "Dawn of History," 1-212.
 Elliott, "Romance of Savage Life," 55-375.
 Duckworth, "Prehistoric Man," 1-149.
 Hittell, "Mankind in Ancient Times, Vol. I," 51-206, 245-318.
 Lubbock, "Pre-historic Times," 25-423.
 Mitchell, "Past and Present," 66-178.

CHAPTER II—BABYLONIANS.

- Robinson & Breasted, "Outlines of European History, Part I," 61-71.
 Myers, "Ancient History," 46-61.
 Botsford, "Source Book of Ancient History," 27-41.
 Goodspeed, "History of the Babylonians and Assyrians," 49-56, 71-117.
 Webster, "Readings in Ancient History," 6-9.
 Sayce, "Ancient Empires of the East," 90-114.
 Seignobos, "History of Ancient Civilization," 41-47.
 Davis, "Readings in Ancient History" (Greece), 24-29, 35-44.
 Ragozin, "Story of Chaldea," 92-115, 229-257.
 Rawlinson, "Five Great Monarchies, Vol. II., 435-580, Vol. III, 1-33.

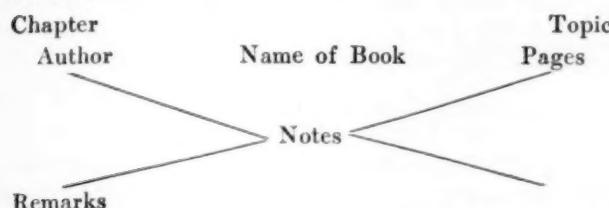
The plan now being used in the history department of Rockford High School requires that pupils read one topic per chapter of the text book. For each of these topics a number of references are cited, as many as possible. The department has 182 Greek history pupils and 161 Roman history pupils and this total of 343 pupils creates a big demand for books. The only chance for trouble in the system arises when pupils can not get hold of books. Hence the more references cited the better. Topics chosen must be broad enough so as to be able to find a good many references. The kind of topics to be chosen must be interesting and must give the pupil information other than he finds in the text-book. The choice of books for the reference list is very important. Still it depends a great deal upon the library, for if the library is large one naturally has a wide choice, but with a small library one must make the best and greatest possible use of each book. The range of the possible selection of books is wider than some teachers seem to suspect. Such books as biographies, memoirs, general histories, histories of limited periods or particular localities, source books, history text-books, historical

ictionaries, and encyclopaedias all contribute richly in making history real, intelligent and interesting. Not always can the whole book be used. It is the teacher's business to select portions only at times to make it intelligible to the pupils. The reference list for our department was made by assigning various topics to the departmental teachers and asking them to go into the library and find all possible references for the topics assigned. In a meeting the topics were discussed with the references collected and this led in turn to the making of the final copy. To be sure not all books cited are the best, but use was made of what was on hand. When new books come in the poor books will be taken off the list. It seems best that the exact pages with references be cited, rather than chapters or the whole book. Mostly references which had ten or more pages were selected because as a rule pupils do not like to read more than two books to make up the required amount of reading. The kinds of books included in the list are both secondary and original sources. Many pupils are especially attracted to the source books.

Now the question may arise, how much can be expected of the pupils? Each pupil must read ten pages from each of the topics listed (ten pages for Greek and Roman history, fifteen pages for modern history, twenty pages for United States history). Emphasis is placed on the least and more is expected. This totals about 400-450 pages for Greek and Roman history, 550 pages for modern history and 600 pages for United States history. (It must be remembered that besides this collateral reading pupils are held responsible for reports given in class. The teacher has her own method and choice with this assignment, and usually the pupils are given the report and are asked to find their own references—this makes for the brousing.) Pupils may choose any reference from the group, or two references if necessary to make up the total pages. In every case the pupil must note the author, name of book, and pages read when making the report. Notes are taken on all readings on loose-leaf note book paper, and this gives desirable training and helps the pupil to remember what he read. Teachers should give suggestions on how to take notes, with emphasis that pupils should not copy a page from the book they are reading and call it notes. They should be urged to read, and then pause to write their impressions. A good plan is to give pupils a practice lesson in taking notes. Let the teacher read a page, and then after the pupils have taken notes compare the same. Pupils should also be made familiar with simple contractions and abbreviations. When copying exact passages from books, quotation marks must be insisted upon. There are other things they must learn here too. At the end of their notes pupils should be requested to insert remarks which should be an original opinion on the value of the books or the contents. This is also the place to express their likes and dislikes.

This method of checking and testing the pupils on their reading seems to be the most essential and still is not over difficult. All our pupils hand in their notes

on their readings written up in the same form, as follows:



This makes it easier for the teacher to check up. The teacher can tell at a glance what kind of work the pupil is doing by the kind of references he chooses. (Of course it is assumed that the teacher is prepared and knows books.) If the teacher is dissatisfied she can call the pupil's attention to making a different choice of author or encourage the pupil to read the same author, same book or different books. Some pupils usually read different topics in the same books, other pupils read different books each time. The notes taken by the pupil help the teacher to check whether the pupil is reading correctly and what the pupil is reading. After covering the notes the teacher will find some interesting things in the remarks. Here the pupil is himself. He tells you just what he thinks. The judgment is formed only after reading. He knows that he must cite remarks and while reading keeps this in mind. Often the entry will be short as "interesting," "good reading," "enjoyable," "dry," "I don't like this book." The important point is to get an honest entry. Such record is of value to both the teacher and the pupil. It furnishes a fairly clear indication of what is suitable reading. If the teacher finds Clodd, "Primitive Man," a popular book there is a reason. If another book is condemned because "it is too hard" it would be worth investigating. Thus in time the teacher will learn the kinds of books well suited to the pupils. It is not uncommon for the pupils to bring the material which they read into the daily discussion. They even cite the author and the name of the book to back up their statements and feel a great amount of pride in doing so. This shows that they feel that they have discovered something. Boys and girls like to discover. To test the pupils give one-half of one period per week to questioning pupils on their readings. A good way to test pupils on to-day's or yesterday's reading is to pick up your returned admits and ask a pupil some questions like the following: 1—What topic were you reading to-day? 2—Give the author and the name of the book? 3—What period did your reading cover? 4—Did it give you any new information? 5—Was the reading interesting or dull? Why? With such questions and others you can get the pupil to talk and he will have much to relate since the reading is still fresh with him. As a final check a question might be included in the monthly quiz or the final examination. Everybody has read about the same, so that it would not be hard to frame a broad general question.

The plan as outlined is workable. It is hoped that the discussion may lead to a greater interest in collateral reading.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Sir Rabindranath Tagore's article on "Nationalism in the West" (March "Atlantic") is more or less a restatement of his views expressed in his lecture on "The Cult of Nationalism" delivered last winter in some of our leading cities. Students of history and theory of government cannot fail to find this arraignment of western political ideals full of food for thought—and even of action.

In the same magazine is an interesting anonymous study of Lloyd George and the Coup d'Etat, and its significance. The author claims that Lloyd George's system is the most daring experiment in government in Great Britain since Cromwell set up his system of Major-Generals.

The "Civilita Cattolica" for January, 1917, has an interesting unsigned article on Innocent III and the seventh centenary of his death, an analysis of his temporal power.

"To America on Foot" ("Harper's" for March) is the story of M. E. Ravage's start from Rumania to America, and incidentally it gives an insight into many conditions of the life of immigrants at home and on the way.

T. Lothrop Stoddard's "The Blundering in Greece" (March "Century") is a study of the position of Greece since 1914, and of the prudent, even fearful quelling of her desires for patriotic action.

"Government Prevention of Railroad Strikes," by Samuel O. Dunn (March "Scribner's"), is an able article by the editor of "The Railway Age Gazette." It points out the fact that organized capital is nowhere else confronted with organizations of labor at once so powerful, so militant and possessed of so many strategic advantages as in the railway field, and reviews the steps by which this situation has come about.

Edward G. Lowry's "The War in the Middle West" (March "World's Work") justifies the criticism of the Eastern papers of the lethargic condition of the Middle West. The author explains this by the fact that this section is prosperous enough to want the present status to remain unchanged.

"Neutral Rights at Sea" ("Review of Reviews" for March) is a summary of the diplomatic correspondence between the United States and the belligerent groups.

The same magazine has an interesting article on "Our New Caribbean Islands," by Eldred E. Jacobsen.

The January number of the "National Geographic Magazine" has a well-illustrated article on "The Valley of Ten Thousand Smokes," by Robert F. Griggs, of the Ohio State University, leader of the expedition to the Katmai district of Alaska in 1915-16.

Major General W. H. Carter writes on "Our Defective Military System," and Lieut. Com. L. A. Cotten on "Our Naval Problem" in the March "North American." Both articles are quite pessimistic, although each strives for an impartial view-point.

J. Holland Rose's "France and the Rhine Frontier" (February "Nineteenth Century") is an argument against the Rhine as the natural boundary of France. The article was in type before the Allied Governments stipulated their terms of peace. Mr. Rose criticizes the scheme as incompatible with the national solidarity, the military security and the peaceful development of France.

The Status of History in the High Schools of Wisconsin

BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

A careful survey of the social science subjects in the high schools of the state of Wisconsin was made for the year 1914-15, and some of the resulting statistics may be of general interest. There were 344 public high schools, varying in size from 13 pupils to 1,125, and having a total enrollment of over 42,000 young citizens. Of this number, approximately 10,500 were taking ancient history; about 5,100 medieval and modern history; about 2,500 English history; about 6,500 American history; 4,700 civics, and 1,500 economics. It was not possible from the records studied to determine accurately how many were taking two courses of history. So disregarding this element of duplication of membership in courses, which would not bulk large, 24,600 pupils took some history; that is to say, practically 59 per cent. In one high school, and only one, every pupil was taking history. This was the smallest high school of the state with a total enrollment of 13 pupils.

The extent of the opportunity presented by the high schools for studying history in addition to whatever civics and economics they were offering, was as follows: 3 offered 4 years of history; 9 offered 3½ years

of history; 132 offered 3 years; 19 offered 2½ years; 148 offered 2½ years or approximately that; 26 offered 2 years; 4 offered 1½ years; 2 offered but 1 year, and 1 offered only ½ year. There was none that offered no history in its course of study. Thus more than one-half of the schools were giving no more than 2½ years to the study of history.

Ten years earlier than this a committee of the history section of the State Teachers' Association, appointed to ascertain the relation existing between American history and civics in the high schools, examined the courses of study of 150 high schools, and reported that of these none offered 4 years of history; 56 offered 3 years; 57 offered 2½ years; 28 offered 2 years, and 9 offered 1½ years. The principle governing the selection of these 150 schools from the whole number is not explicitly declared in the committee's report, but it is implied that these 150 are those high schools in whose courses of study history has the largest place. Even on this supposition a comparison of the condition in 1914-15 with that of 1904-5 shows that history has a much stronger place now than then, for whereas then 56 out of 150 offered 3 years, now

4 Years	English Ancient Medieval and Modern American	Ancient Medieval and Modern English American
3½ Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern English American, ½ year
3 Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern American	Ancient Medieval and English American	Ancient English, ½ year Modern, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year Modern American
2½ Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year English, ½ year American	Ancient English, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year
2½ Years	Ancient Medieval and Modern American, ½ year	Ancient English American, ½ year	Ancient Medieval and English American, ½ year	Ancient English, ½ year American	Ancient Medieval and Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year Modern, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year
2 Years	Ancient English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient American	Ancient, ½ year Medieval, ½ year English, ½ year American, ½ year	Ancient, ½ year Medieval and Modern, ½ year American	Medieval and Modern American	Ancient, ½ year Medieval and Modern and English American, ½ year
1½ Years	Ancient, ½ year Medieval and Modern, ½ year American, ½ year
1 Year	Ancient
½ Year	Ancient

144 out of 344 are offering 3 or more years; and where 57 out of 150 then offered $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{2}{3}$ years, now 167 out of 344 are offering that amount; and finally though 37 then out of 150 offered 2 years or less, now only 33 out of the 344 are offering so little.

Turning now to the subject of civics, it appears from the statistics that of all the high schools of the state but 41 offer a course in American civil government. Almost always this is a half year in length, commonly given as a separate subject, but occasionally not separated from American history. In 265 high schools it is required of all. In 79, therefore, nearly $\frac{1}{2}$ of the schools of the state, among which are some of the large schools, it is possible for boys and girls to graduate without having had a course in this subject. Five schools of the state offer in the first or second year of the curriculum a course in civics besides that offered to their seniors, and teach through this the local aspects of government especially.

Three hundred ten high schools require American history of every pupil before graduation, but in 34 or one-tenth of the high schools of the state, pupils may graduate without having been taught there the history of their country.

To find in a high school of 850 pupils that only 28 were taking American history and civics seemed to suggest an un-American condition there. One wonders how widespread throughout our country this situation is.

Political economy was offered by 136 high schools out of 344; ten years earlier it was offered by 110 out of the 150 reported on.

An inquiry into the composition of the high school groups of history studies reveals the following wide variety and divergence of practice as to what are requisite in time and content to make up a course in history.

In this table the time devoted to a subject or group is one year unless otherwise stated.

Here are 37 varieties of history program, a different one for about every ten schools, and it is apparent that nothing like uniformity or common ideal prevails as to length of course or content of course in history. As to the degree in which other history subjects besides American history are required subjects in the curriculum, it seems impossible to present accurate statistics, because where the high school offers more than one course of study, the requirements vary with the course. The requirement of the state department of education is that in those high schools that are under its authority, every pupil who graduates must have taken at least two units in each of these four subjects, English, mathematics, science and history-civics. But the large city school-systems of the state are independent of the control of the State Superintendent of Education and this requirement does not apply to them. It would appear that in the great majority of the schools ancient history, which is most often a second year subject, is required of all, as American history has been shown to be; medieval and modern, and English history are more often elective.

Reports from The Historical Field

A reading course in American history has recently been added to the list of such courses prepared by the United States Bureau of Education. The reading course was planned in response to over one thousand requests from various parts of the country for a reading list on American history. In writing about this course, Commissioner P. P. Claxton says, "No country has a more interesting history than the United States, which, from its beginnings in the scattered settlements of immigrants from European shores three hundred years ago and less, has grown through colonial and national life till it has become the greatest, wealthiest, most powerful and most prosperous, the freest, the most self-controlled and self-restrained, the most cosmopolitan and the most firmly united nation the world has ever known." Twenty-three works are mentioned in the reading list, and the United States Bureau of Education awards a certificate to any persons giving satisfactory evidence of having read eighteen books from the list.

The New York State History Teachers' Association has appointed a committee to draw up a constitution and outline a plan of activity for the Association. It is planned to establish a number of local branches in important centers of the State, and to hold two or three local meetings in the intervals between the annual State meetings. The officers of the Association are: President, Edward B. Smith, North Tonawanda; vice-president, Rachel M. Jarrold, Normal School, Fredonia; and secretary, R. Sherman Stowell, West High School, Rochester.

The student of Mexican history will find much to interest him in the recently-published report of the Committee for the Study of Educational Conditions in Mexico. The report is edited by the committee's chairman, President Charles William Dabney, of the University of Cincinnati. It traces the history of education in Mexico from the early colonial period down to the present time, and shows how the progress of popular education has been retarded by racial differences, by religious influences, by political revolutions, and by economic favoritism. The committee recommends the establishment in Mexico of an independent university somewhat similar to Robert College at Constantinople.

"Political Education in the Schools" is the subject of a series of papers printed in "Teaching," No. 33, published by the State Normal School at Emporia, Kan. Governor Arthur Capper contributes a paper upon "Simplifying Government in Kansas." Homer Hoch, editor of the "Record," of Marion, Kan., writes upon "Governmental Reform and the Public School." W. E. Myer, of the State Normal School, discusses "The Dependence of Democracy on the Public Schools;" "Methods of Political Training," and "Training of Teachers in Civil Government." Professor Myer accompanies his articles with bibliographical suggestions. Superintendent Alvin G. Gore, of Formosa, Kan., shows how current events are handled in the high school of his district, and Miss Anna Brogan, of the State Normal School, gives practical suggestions for the teaching of civics.

The Canada-India League (293 Huron Street, Toronto, Canada) has issued several pamphlets advocating the policy of admission of Hindu immigrants into Canada. A journal of information and conciliation entitled, "Canada and India," is also issued monthly from the same address.

No. 32 of "Teaching" is devoted to a consideration of the school library, elementary and rural. The number contains a list of books recommended for purchase at the starting of a school library. It gives advice as to how to classify, arrange and record the books of the library. Many practical suggestions are given concerning the gathering and care of pictures.

"Smith College Studies in History," Vol. 2, No. 2 (January, 1917), contains the correspondence of George Bancroft and Jared Sparks from 1823 to 1832, illustrating the relation between editor and reviewer in the early nineteenth century. The letters are edited by Prof. John Spencer Bassett.

The quarterly journal of the Historical Association (English), entitled, "History," for January, 1917, has been received. The number contains two papers upon "The Making of an Imperial Parliament," by Prof. R. Muir and Mr. D. O. Malcolm. Miss A. Abram contributes a paper describing military service in the Flemish commune of Bruges from 1288 to 1480. Miss Ruth Dodds gives a few facts in the life of a "Mosstrooper" who lived a cunning, fierce, true marchman about the year 1500.

The United States Bureau of Education has issued an educational survey of the State of Wyoming (Bulletin No. 29, 1916), prepared by Mr. A. C. Monahan and Miss Katherine M. Cook. The paper contains a sketch of the history of education in Wyoming and a detailed investigation of the present system, including buildings, equipment, enrollment and attendance, character of the teaching body, methods of instruction and of supervision, together with a body of recommendations for improvement of the State system.

The publishers of "The Outlook" have arranged to print weekly an outline study of current history which will be based upon the preceding issue of the magazine. The purpose of the study will be to aid teachers of current history to provide lists of topics for discussion in clubs; to afford a guide for discussion in the family circle; and to aid individual readers in a careful examination of current history. Mr. J. Madison Gathany, principal of the Hope Street High School, Providence, R. I., will prepare the weekly outlines.

The Division of Archives and History of the University of the State of New York, has begun, under the direction of the State historian, Dr. James Sullivan, the publication of a series of history leaflets. The leaflets are intended for the use of boys and girls in New York schools so that they may come to know something of the sources of the history which they study. Teachers and pupils are invited to co-operate with the Division of Archives and History in preparing material for these pamphlets. One recently issued pamphlet deals with "Verrazano's Voyage Along the Atlantic Coast of North America in 1524." The leaflet contains reproductions of portraits of Verrazano and of contemporary maps. A second pamphlet deals with Bedford Corners, Brooklyn, about which took place some of the important incidents of the Battle of Long Island. The pamphlet contains an imaginative view of Bedford Corners in 1776 and reproductions of engraved portraits of Sir William Howe, Earl Cornwallis, and Sir Henry Clinton. A map showing this section of Brooklyn as it was in 1776 is given, and also one on which the old roads are superimposed upon the present streets of Brooklyn.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland will hold its annual meeting in Philadelphia on Friday and Saturday, May 4 and 5. The program will

consist of papers and discussions upon the following topics: (1) "Should the History Curriculum for Vocational Students Differ from That for Academic Students? If so, How?" (2) "How Far Should the Teaching of History Be Used as a Means of Encouraging Patriotism?" The Saturday morning session will be held at Girard College, and members will be entertained at luncheon by the college authorities.

INDIANA HISTORY TEACHERS.

The spring meeting of the Indiana History Section of the Indiana State Teachers' Association was held in Indianapolis, March 2 and 3. The program for Friday afternoon was as follows: "Some Phases of the Indiana Fugitive Slave Law of 1850," by Charles H. Money, Manual Training High School; "Populism in Indiana," by Hallie Farmer, Muncie High School; "A Chapter in Indiana Pension History," by John W. Oliver, Department of Indiana History and Archives; "Extra Legal Activities of Governor Morton," by Olin D. Morrison, Indiana University. The following addresses were given on Friday evening: "The Labor Problem in Indiana Politics," by Ray S. Trent, Extension Division of Indiana University; "An American Attitude in International Affairs," by Thomas F. Moran, Purdue University.

On Saturday morning the business session was held. Two papers, one by J. R. H. Moore, on "Some Conclusions Drawn from My Experience in Teaching Indiana History," and the other, by Charles H. Money, on "Suggestions for the Fall Meeting," were read. The following reports were also read: Report of the Committee on the Correlation of History and Civics, by W. O. Lynch, chairman, State Normal School, and Report of the Committee for the Revision of the Course of Study in History in the Secondary Schools, by Harlow Lindley, chairman, Earlham College. The papers and reports gave rise to interesting and spirited discussions. A report of much importance was made by the Committee for the Revision of the Course of Study in History in the Secondary Schools. The report, which was adopted, is as follows:

1. The committee recommends that the State Board of Education be asked to adopt a two years' course of European history, including an introductory treatment of ancient and Oriental history. The committee recommends that the first year's work should extend to 1648 A. D., and that the second year's work should extend from 1648 to 1914.

2. The committee recommends that the third year's work should be American history and civics, placing the emphasis of the first half year on the development of the American nation from 1760 to 1876, and the second half year on recent United States history and civics. (For this year's work the committee recommends a single text-book, dealing with the period before 1876, mainly historical, and treating the later period from the point of view of contemporary problems.)

3. The committee recommends that social and economic history be given at least as much attention as political history.

4. The committee recommends that every topic discussed in all this work shall be treated so as to show its connection with present American life and institutions, whenever it seems to the teacher valuable for the pupil.

5. The committee recommends that if Sections 1-4 be agreed to by the History Section, a statement of these guiding principles be presented immediately to the State Board of Education with the recommendation that they be used as a guide in the adoption of text-books in history a year hence.

6. The committee further recommends that on the adoption of new text-books in history, a committee be author-

ized to prepare an outline and syllabus which will serve as a guide to teachers in carrying out the recommendations of Sections 1-4.

The meeting was well attended, sixty teachers from various parts of the State being registered. The papers and addresses were of much interest and the sessions were attended by a number of persons not connected with history teaching. Prof. Beverley W. Bond, Jr., of Purdue University, presided over the meetings, and Miss Josephine M. Cox, of Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, was secretary and treasurer. Officers for the coming year were elected as follows: President, J. V. Masters, Rushville, Ind.; vice-president, Miss Hallie Farmer, Muncie, Ind.; secretary-treasurer, Charles H. Money, Indianapolis. Additional members of the Executive Committee are: Professor L. H. Gibson, Crawfordsville, Ind., and Prof. Harriette C. Palmer, Franklin, Ind.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

FOWLER, H. N. *The History of Sculpture*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xxvi, 445. \$2.00.

HAMLIN, A. D. F. *The History of Ornament, Ancient and Medieval*. New York: The Century Co., 1916. Pp. xxiv, 406. \$3.00.

For others than those specializing in the history of art these books have value. In every town where ancient history and medieval history are taught present-day architecture together with mural art constitutes an element of the environment of teacher and pupils which may often be advantageously related to aspects of history that are being studied in the class-room. To be able to point out concrete evidences of the obligations of one's own community to Egypt or Babylon or Greece or medieval Europe is to be able to enrich materially for one's boys and girls the subject of history. Such books as these equip the teacher for such service as well as assist otherwise in the interpretation of the text-book material. Both of them are lavishly illustrated and both may be accepted as authoritative. The former begins its account of the history of sculpture with the ancient Orient, including the Far East of Japan, China and India. The latter, beginning with primitive and savage times, and treating ornament as synonymous with decorative design, interprets for the reader the motives and the principles of the art expressed in ancient pottery and vases, and especially in the many forms of structural work of ancient and medieval peoples from the times of the Egyptians and Babylonians down through the Gothic period of architecture.

CALLAHAN, JAMES M. *Semi-Centennial History of West Virginia*. Charleston, W. Va.: Semi-Centennial Commission of West Virginia, 1914. Pp. 594. \$1.75, net. To libraries, \$1.00.

The first 302 pages of this book, two volumes in one, constitute the State history by Professor Callahan. The remainder is made up of articles by various contributors on subjects related to the natural resources and people of the State. The historical sketch may be said to begin with the Indian treaty of Fort Stanwix. Then follows a good account of the struggle of the Western with the Eastern part of the State in the two conventions of 1829-30 and 1851, giving in full the votes of each section on the more important issues. A rather surprising omission is that regarding the legislative debate or slavery in Virginia in

1831, which Professor Ambler has told so well. The account of the first Wheeling Convention and political events following are told without bias, and the author steered entirely clear of the controversy regarding the dismemberment of Virginia either to justify or condemn. The chief criticism of the history is that the author has not fully grasped or has not forcibly told the whole story of sectionalism in Virginia, which is to be an important topic in any history of West Virginia. But the story of the marvelous economic development of the State is an exhaustively told as can be expected within the limitations of this work. A good-sized section deals with the Virginia debt controversy. A feature that distinguishes it as a useful reference book is the series of maps which illustrate at a glance the votes on measures by counties; those opposite pages 150, 242, 246 and 247 are good examples. It is to be regretted that the author felt justified in economizing space to omit footnote references. A not very discriminating bibliography without comment appears at the close. One is impressed with the large number of local histories cited, many of which must not be authoritative; the better ones should have been noted and all the materials classified. Several reprints of acts relating to the formation of the State appear in an appendix. Numerous photographic illustrations of scenes in the State are distributed throughout the book. As the work has somewhat of a co-operative nature, slight personal touches appear that would not be expected in a straightforward history where only one person is responsible. Poetry and even the menu card of the semi-centennial dinner are printed.

Some typographical errors should be corrected: Page 145, "nally" must be intended for "finally;" opposite page 239, "specimen" is misspelled; opposite page 285, the series is the "South in the Building of the Nation," instead of "Making of the Nation," and on page 290, the correct title is Turner, "Rise of the New West," instead of "Rise of the West."

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

KITSON, HARRY D. *How to Use Your Mind*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1916. Pp. 216. \$1.00.

Written by an instructor in psychology in the University of Chicago to serve the needs of students and teachers in the administration of supervised study, it presents in twelve brief chapters the nature of the intellectual problems confronting the freshmen, and suggests practical modes of attack upon them. Advice is given as to note-taking, formation of habits of study, ways of assisting and strengthening the memory and power of attention, preparation for examination, and the securing of such conditions of body as shall make for effective study. Other chapters describe intellectual processes which the student must employ successfully. Experts speak favorably of this book, which use with students also approves.

NEWTON, CAROLINE CLIFFORD. *Once Upon a Time in Connecticut*. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. vii, 140. 60 cents.

Published under the auspices of the Colonial Dames of Connecticut and with the endorsement of Professor C. M. Andrews, of Yale University, this constitutes very serviceable supplementary reading material in colonial history for grades below the high school. Well narrated accounts are given of a dozen incidents memorable in our nation's history. "Nathan Hale," "Old Wolf Putnam," "Three Judges," "The House of Hope" and "The Charter Oak" are some typical titles of its chapters. A dozen excellent illustrations, and at the end of each chapter good brief lists of references, add value to the book.

STREIENSKI, CASIMIR. *The Eighteenth Century*. Translated from the French by H. N. Dickinson. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1917. Pp. 345. \$2.50.

This is the fourth volume of "The National History of France," edited by Fr. Finck-Brentano, who has himself assumed the authorship of the volume on the Middle Ages. Other collaborators are J. E. C. Borley, in an introduction; L. Batiffol, on the century of the Renaissance; Jacques Boulanger, on the great century, and Louis Madelin, in two volumes, one on the French Revolution, and the other on the Consulate and the Empire.

The tendency of these scholars to a more favorable attitude toward the institutions of monarchical France is well known. Speaking of the development of the modern spirit and the revolution, the author of the present volume says: "Soon a lamentable ruin was all that remained of the ancient edifice; our Acropolis was destroyed, and like that of Athens became but a shrine for pilgrims where some might mourn the vanity of human things, others to raise the song of victory." Unfortunately, the picture of the eighteenth century, even by this admirer of the old order, is far from endearing it to us. The approach is altogether from the personal side. There are pages devoted to the King and the details of his daily life, while the great social and intellectual movements of the age are given short shrift. It is old-fashioned history with some evidence of literary merit.

WM. E. LINGELBACH.

University of Pennsylvania.

CARLTON, ROBERT. (Baynard Rush Hall). *The New Purchase*. Edited by James Albert Woodburn. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. xxxii, 522. \$2.00.

This reprint of a volume long out of print was brought out in connection with the recent centennial celebration of Indiana's admission to Statehood. That which gives the book its title was a tract of land acquired by the United States Government from the Indians in 1818, and from it thirty-seven of Indiana's counties were eventually made in whole or in part. To this region Mr. Hall, a Presbyterian clergyman and graduate of Union College and Princeton Theological Seminary, came in 1822 attracted by the opportunity to teach in the Indiana Seminary, recently established by the legislature of the State. This institution eight years later became Indiana College, and in 1838 Indiana University. Though by the time of his coming Indiana had been a State six years, the region of his residence was primitive wilderness, and during his stay of nearly ten years his life was that of a pioneer. His book is a record of his various experiences, and thus is a tale of the backwoods, an account of pioneer days and ways, and a picture of the Middle West in its beginnings. Though it sparkles with whimsical humor and interesting incident, it is characterized by fidelity to fact, and constitutes source material of high order of excellence. The editor calls it "an imperishable Indiana classic," and other competent critics support him in this judgment.

LORD, ROBERT HOWARD. *The Second Partition of Poland. A Study in Diplomatic History*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1915. Pp. xxx, 586. \$2.25.

This book is a worthy continuation of a notable series of scholarly works. Dr. Lord has made a very thorough study of a great mass of original source material little known to most American scholars and produced an excellent monograph. He comes to the conclusion that the Second Partition of Poland was not forced on the Tsarina Catherine II by Prussia, but was due rather to her own secret plans. In

a number of other matters, the author presents views more or less different from those generally accepted up to now, and substantiates them by extensive references to the original sources and by a collection of documents at the close of the book. The introduction and the first chapter (pages 3-63) are devoted to a good survey of conditions in Poland in the eighteenth century and the general international conditions affecting the partitions. These chapters are good reading for the more mature high school students of modern European history, but the main part of the book is too detailed for effective use in high schools.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

BRYAN, WILHELMUS BOGART. A History of the National Capital. Vol. II. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. xx + 642. \$5.00.

This volume is uniform in style, mechanical makeup and general purpose with the first, appearing about two years ago and reviewed in this MAGAZINE soon after the publication (Vol. VI, page 126). The first volume brings the narrative of the history of our Capital from the founding down to the close of the War of 1812 or thereabouts, and this volume carries the account to 1878. The period covered by the latter is perhaps far the more interesting. The work of research, careful detail, footnote annotation is well done in this, as was the case with its predecessor. A wealth of facts regarding Washington is painstakingly brought together. The criticisms of the former volume apply in general to the present volume. There is no logical division into chapters—merely mechanical divisions. Of course, this statement must be modified by the statement that the whole is done chronologically, and hence the chapters in a way point to periods. It gives a wonderful amount of detail regarding the buildings, streets, railways. Too, it does not neglect the political and social events that have any bearing on the history of the place. As instances, the slave-trade in the District and debates in Congress relating to the District are carefully noted.

But considering the voluminousness of the set and the expense, perhaps it will not reach as large a part of the general reading public as it deserves. The author might meet that need by a smaller condensed work. On the other hand, we must not overlook the fact that as a complete history of our National Capital the author has rendered a decidedly valuable historical service by not condensing it at all.

H. M. HENRY.

Emory and Henry College, Virginia.

LIPSON, E., M.A. Europe in the Nineteenth Century. An Outline History. London: A. and C. Black, 1916. Pp. iii, 298.

This brief history of the last century disclaims at the outset any effort at a treatment of the international features of European history. The author sets out rather to give "a concise and connected account of the internal development of the chief European States after the fall of Napoleon." (P. ii.) The plan is adhered to faithfully, but the execution is indifferent, and the American reader will not find anything here to entice him from the works on this period of European history already known and better done. To cite only as one example of evidence of the lack of a clear and comprehensive grasp of his subject, the muddled treatment of the Prussian revolutionary movement in 1848 may be cited. The Combined Diet of the Provincial Estates was summoned in 1847, and therefore not "as a consequence of the March Days" in 1848. What was summoned in 1848 was a Constituent Assembly. As a matter of emphasis it would be better to give at least a little more than a general

statement in one sentence to the Prussian Constitution of 1850, since it is still with slight modifications the fundamental law of the Prussian State, and abbreviate somewhat the account of the futile and uninteresting efforts at reorganization in Germany in 1850.

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American History.

Anderson, August. Hyphenated; the life story of S. M. Swenson. [History of early Swedish settlers in Texas from 1838.] Austin, Tex.: [The Author]. 290 pp. \$1.50.

Hewitt, Louise, compiler. Historic Trenton. Trenton, N. J.: C. L. Traver. 103 pp. \$1.00, net.

Huxford, Folks, compiler and editor. History of Clinch County, Georgia. Macon, Ga.: J. W. Burke Co. 309 pp. \$1.75.

Johnson, Rossiter. The fight for the Republic. Events in the war of secession. N. Y.: Putnam. 404 pp. \$2.50, net.

Kellogg, Louise P. Early narratives of the Northwest. N. Y.: Scribner. 394 pp. \$3.00, net.

Locke, Emma P. B., editor. Colonial Amherst. Milford, N. H.: W. B. and H. B. Rotch. 122 pp. \$1.25, net.

McCook, Arthur R. New American history and government outlines. Chicago: Beckley Cardy Co. 112 pp. 25 cents.

Mann, Herman. Life of Deborah Sampson, the female soldier in the war of the Revolution. Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 191 pp. \$5.10.

Parker, William T. Annals of old Ft. Cummings', New Mexico, 1867-68. Northampton, Mass.: [The Author]. 56 pp. \$1.50, net.

Waterman, John H. General history of Seward County, Nebraska. Beaver Crossing, Neb.: [The Author]. 291 pp. \$1.50.

Wheeler, Everett P. Sixty years of American Life, 1850-1910. N. Y.: Dutton. 489 pp. \$2.50, net.

English History.

Cunningham, William. The progress of capitalism in England. N. Y.: Putnam. 144 pp. (6 1/4 pp. bibls.). 90 cents, net.

Klein, Arthur J. Intolerance in the reign of Elizabeth, Queen of England. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 218 pp. (18 pp. bibls.). \$2.00, net.

Jackman, William T. The development of transportation in modern England. 2 vols. N. Y.: Putnam. 460, 360 pp. (62 pp. bibls.). \$7.25, net.

Tedder, Arthur W. The navy of the Restoration from the Death of Cromwell to the Treaty of Breda. N. Y.: Putnam. 234 pp. (39 pp. bibls.). \$2.25, net.

European History.

- Giordani, Paolo. *The German colonial empire.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 156 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Hazen, Charles D. *Modern European History.* N. Y.: Holt. 650 pp. \$1.75.
 Jordan, David Starr. *Alsace-Lorraine: a study in conquest.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 113 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Leslie, Shane. *The Celt and the world; a study of the relation of Celt and Teuton in history.* N. Y.: Scribner. 224 pp. \$1.25, net.

The Great War.

- Bryce, James, Viscount, and others. *The war of democracy; the Allies' statement.* Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 440 pp. \$2.00, net.
 Currie, Col. J. A. "The Red Watch;" with the first Canadian division in Flanders. N. Y.: Dutton. 294 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Gibbs, Philip. *The battles of the Somme.* N. Y.: Doran. 377 pp. \$2.00, net.
 Hurgronne, Christian S. *The revolt in Arabia.* N. Y.: Putnam. 150 pp. 75 cents, net.
I accuse; by a German. N. Y.: Grosset & Dunlap. 445 pp. 75 cents.
 Palmer, Frederick. *My second year of the war.* N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 404 pp. \$1.50, net.
 Spiegel, von und zu Peckelsheim, Edgar Baron. *The adventures of U-202, an actual narrative [by her commander].* N. Y.: Century Co. 202 pp. \$1.00, net.
 Visscher, Charles de. *Belgium's case.* N. Y.: Doran. 164 pp. (3½ pp. bibls.). \$1.00, net.
 Wells, Herbert G. *Italy, France and Britain at War.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 285 pp. \$1.50, net.

Miscellaneous.

- U. S., Lib. of Congress. *A list of American Doctoral dissertations printed in 1915.* Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 160 pp. 30 cents.
 Wragg, H., compiler and editor. *Letters written in wartime, XV-XIX centuries.* N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 266 pp. 75 cents, net.

Biography.

- Bancroft, George, and Sparks, Jared. *Correspondence of George Bancroft and Jared Sparks, 1823-1832.* Northampton, Mass.: Smith College. 143 pp. 50 cents.
 Dellenbaugh, F. S. *George Armstrong Custer.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 188 pp. 50 cents, net.
 Hannay, Daniel. *Porfirio Diaz.* N. Y.: Holt. 319 pp. \$2.00, net.
 Coolidge, Lewis A. *Ulysses S. Grant.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 596 pp. \$2.00, net.
 Rare Lincolniana. Tarrytown, N. Y.: W. Abbott. 71 pp. \$3.30.
 Login, E. Dalhousie. *Lady Login's Recollections, 1820-1904.* [Author was wife of an East Indian official.] N. Y.: Dutton. 345 pp. \$4.00, net.
 Saunders, E. M. *The life and letters of the Rt. Hon. Sir Charles Tupper.* In 2 vols. N. Y.: Stokes. 319, 298 pp. \$7.50, net.

Government and Politics.

- Forman, Samuel E. *Government in Illinois.* N. Y.: Century Co. 60 pp. 10 cents.
 Goodnow, Frank J. *The American conception of liberty and government.* Providence, R. I.: Brown Univ. 63 pp. 50 cents.
 McCarthy, Charles, and others. *A manual for teachers of civics in upper grammar grades [etc].* N. Y.: Thompson, Brown & Co. 29 pp. 25 cents.
 Merriman, Roger B. *The Monroe Doctrine; its past and present status.* N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 24 pp. 15 cents, net.
 Oklahoma University, Univ. Ex. Div., Depts. of Pub. Discussion and Debate. *The Monroe Doctrine.* Norman, Okla.: The University. 146 pp. (9 pp. bibls.). 10 cents.

- Roberts, Peter. *Civics for coming Americans.* N. Y.: Association Press 118 pp. 50 cents.
 Shambaugh, B. F., editor. *Statute law making in Iowa.* Iowa City, Ia.: State Hist. Soc. 718 pp. \$3.00.
 Simpson, Alex., Jr. *A treatise on federal impeachments.* Phila.: Law Assn. of Phila. 230 pp.
 U. S. President [Wilson]. *Address . . . delivered at a joint session of the two houses of Congress, Dec. 5, 1916.* Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 7 pp.
 —————— *A league for peace, address . . . delivered before the U. S. Senate on Jan. 22, 1917.* Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 8 pp.

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